DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 285 407 FL 016 887

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TITLE The German Teacher's Companion. Development and Structure of the German Language. Workbook and Key.

PUB DATE 82

NOTE 640p.

PUB TYPE Guides - Classroom Use - Guides (For Teachers) (052) -- Reference Materials - General (130)

EDRS PRICE MF03/PC26 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS Comparative Analysis; Contrastive Linguistics; Diachronic Linguistics; English; *German; *Grammar; Language Teachers; Morphology (Languages); *Phonology; Reference Materials; Second Language Instruction; *Syntax; Teacher Education; Teaching Guides; Textbooks; Workbooks

ABSTRACT

This complete pedagogical reference grammar for German was designed as a textbook for advanced language teacher preparation, as a reference handbook on the structure of the German language, and for reference in German study. It systematically analyzes and describes the language's phonology, morphology, and syntax, and gives a brief survey of its origins and development. German and English structures are also compared and contrasted to allow understanding of areas of similarity or difficulty. The analysis focuses on insights useful to the teacher rather than stressing linguistic theory. The materials include a main text/reference and a separate volume containing a workbook and key. The workbook contains exercises directly related to the text. (MSE)

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THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION

Development and Structure of the German Language

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NEWBURY HOUSE PUBLISHERS, INC.
ROWLEY, MASSACHUSETTS 01969
ROWLEY • LONDON • TOKYO
1982

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data

Hosford, Helga, 1937–
The German teacher's companion.

Bibliography: p.
Includes index.
1. German language--Grammar--1950–
2. German language--History. I. Title.
PF3105.H67 1982 435 82-8238
ISBN 0-88377-275-2

Cover design by Barbara Frake

NEWBURY HOUSE PUBLISHERS, INC.

Language Science
Language Teaching
Language Learning

ROWLEY, MASSACHUSETTS 01969
ROWLEY • LONDON • TOKYO

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First printing: October 1982
Printed in the U.S.A.
5 4 3 2 1

THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION
ERRATA

p. 6	1.31	line 13	OHG helpfamēs
		last line	spirants *ƀ, *đ, *g̶
p. 9	1.4	line 7	(Platt-, Nīederdeutsch)
p. 20	1.51	line 16	Tag /tāk/
p. 25	1.53	line 7	wīp
p. 39	1.82	line 42	/mētšə/
p. 41	1.82	line 13	Leib
p. 50	2.31	line 19	labio-dental (1)+(6)
p. 55	2.331	line 14	/hjūdž/
p. 63	2.334	line 17	lieben /lībən/
p. 65	2.42	item # 5	Rute Buhle Ruhm Sure
p. 66	2.42	line 8	pairs
p. 72	2.43	line 3	/ọ/ and /ạ/
p. 99	3.1351	line 2	dürfen
p. 107	3.161	line 3	r Indikativ
p. 144	3.231	line 4	the subject is usually incapable..
p. 150	3.314	line 4	Diese Nachricht
p. 186	4.122	in chart	der: EXCEPTIONS e Nummer, Oper s Wasser, Kloster PLURAL line above (¨)ə
p. 186	4.122	in chart	die: PLURAL line below -nen
p. 187	4.122	in chart	die: EXCEPTIONS s Spalier
p. 206	4.144	line 15	inflected
p. 207	4.144	line 2	vorn vorder-vorderst-
p. 244	4.164	line 1	s Indefinitpronomen
p. 248	4.165	line 13	Warum arbeitet er?
p. 251	4.211	line 17	delete: sion).
p. 275	5.222	entry (1)	with impersonal predicates
p. 303	1.3	entry 2	Philologie
p. 312	3.22	entry 1	Modalitätsverben
p. 321	5.32	entry 11	Vorschläge

FOR MY BILL WITH LOVE

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

No study of German, one of the most extensively described languages of the world, can be original or independent of other works. This book was prompted by the belief that German teachers need a comprehensive handbook, and it combines the methods and findings of innumerable studies of all aspects of the German language.

In Chapter One, I am indebted to John T. Waterman's A History of the German Language (1976) and to William G. Moulton's succinct essay "The German Language" (1974).

Since it is impossible to improve on William G. Moulton's The Sounds of English and German (1962), Chapter Two owes a great deal to that superb work.

The rest of the volume is a composite of experiences gained in many years of teaching German, English and Linguistics, utilizing not only the approaches of teaching German as a foreign language in Germany, but also of a great many textbooks of German in America, as well as of the descriptions of German in handbooks and journals.

My friends and colleagues Robert B. Hausmann and O.W. Rolfe, who unsparingly advised, encouraged and helped me in so many ways, have my sincere gratitude.

I thank my colleagues Gertrud Lackschewitz and Ward H. Powell for their patient reading of successive stages of the manuscript and for the valuable suggestions they gave me.

I am grateful to my students, among them especially Keith Edgerton, my reliable typist, and Valorie J. Ellison, for their willingness to experiment with me on different approaches. Their cooperation and response have always been gratifying.

INTRODUCTION

THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION was designed with three purposes in mind. Primarily, it is a textbook for advanced university classes which prepare future teachers of German such as "Applied German Linguistics," "The Structure of Modern German," or "The Teaching of German." To permit amplification and practice, the volume is accompanied by a WORKBOOK.

The second, but not necessarily secondary, purpose of this work is to provide a reference handbook on the structure of the German language for all persons interested in German, and specifically for German teachers in the profession. For this reason, it has a detailed table of contents and all structures are extensively cross-referenced with one another and with the index.

Because of these characteristics, THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION and WORKBOOK can be used, thirdly, in independent or auto-didactic studies and for individual reviews of the German language.

THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION is a pedagogical grammar of contemporary German which not only systematically analyzes and describes its phonology, morphology and syntax, but also gives a brief survey of its origin and development. At the same time, German and English structures are compared and contrasted to allow insights into areas of similarity or difficulty.

As a pedagogical grammar, the corpus is by necessity selective. The choice of material is based on the most frequently used structures and on those that are usually taught during the first four years at the university level.

The descriptive method of THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION focuses on developing insights useful to the teacher, rather than stressing linguistic theory. The methodology of linguistic science is applied eclectically, and the use of structural, transformational, or diachronic approaches is determined by the nature of the individual structure and its optimal presentation. Grammatical analysis for pedagogical purposes is viewed as a short-cut and a system of abbreviations which collapses the inventory of languages under certain rubrics and permits generalizations. Simplifications are considered legitimate, provided they give insights into the function of structural units and do not foster misapplication. For this reason, particular attention was paid to clear definitions and delimitations and to surveys summarizing related phenomena, as well as to descriptive terminology.

The intent of THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION is to help teachers of German increase their own mastery of the German language and to provide a detailed background of teaching materials, as well as to guide teachers towards clear presentations of German in the classroom. However, the work is not partial to any particular method of foreign language instruction.

Discussions about language can become sterile and lifeless unless the language is used. The use of all structures and a wealth of supplementary material are provided in the WORKBOOK which expands, enhances, and practices all items discussed in THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION. At the same time, the exercises give examples of how to practice certain structures in the classroom. The KEY permits verification of all answers to the problems and exercises in the WORKBOOK.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

A	'accusative case'
AO	'accusative object'
D	'dative case'
DO	'dative object'
e	'die'
ENHG	'Early New High German'
G	'genitive case'
Gmc	'Germanic'
GO	'genitive object'
hum	'human'
IE	'Indo-European'
inan	'inanimate'
MHG	'Middle High German'
N	'nominative case'
NE	'New (Modern) English'
NHG	'New High German'
OE	'Old English'
OHG	'Old High German'
OS	'Old Saxon'
pl	'plural'
PO	'prepositional object'
r	'der'
s	'das'
S	'subject'
SC	'subordinate clause'
sg	'singular'
*	'reconstructed, not attested'
*	'ungrammatical'
/	'alternative'
[ ]	'phonetic transcription'
<>	'grapheme'
>	'becomes, is transformed to'
<	'comes from'

CHAPTER ONE

1. ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF GERMAN

1.1 Common Origin of English and German

Even the most uninitiated student will notice that there are many German words bearing a striking resemblance to English words. Thousands of examples could be given; here are just a few:

ENGLISH	GERMAN	ENGLISH	GERMAN
sing	singen	pipe	Pfeife
boat	Boot	open	offen
shoe	Schuh	tide	Zeit
stone	Stein	water	Wasser
beard	Bart	make	machen
hound	Hund	thing	Ding
bloom	Blume	stove	Stube

When the student's knowledge of German increases, he will become aware that not only are there similarities between words, but there are also regular and systematic correspondences between sounds, such as English initial 'p' corresponding with German pf-.

Gradually, structural resemblances such as parallels in the verb systems, the pronouns, and many other structures will become recognizable.

These similarities stem from the fact that German and English are closely related languages which have evolved from a common proto-language, known as Germanic, which was spoken in northern Europe in the first century A.D. Germanic peoples invaded and settled a major part of England, giving it its name (Angles>England) and leaving their imprint on many place names (Saxons>Wessex, Sussex, Middlesex). The structure and much of the everyday vocabulary of English are of Germanic origin, although later many words were borrowed from other languages.

Other languages which belong to the Germanic language group include Frisian, Flemish, Dutch, Afrikaans, Yiddish, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, and Icelandic (1.3). Because of structural similarities, the Germanic languages are relatively simple to learn for English-speaking students.

For the German teacher, an insight into the historical development of German in comparison with English, the linguistic history of which is parallel in many instances, is indispensible. Not only does the historical perspective deepen the understanding of languages as such and help to grasp the multitude of forms in a meaningful fashion, but it also provides the teacher with inexhaustible resources of interesting facts and stories. The teacher can anticipate students' questions on seemingly "illogical" structures in the modern language and answer them in a meaningful manner.

In foreign language pedagogy, information about linguistic structures is often presented as static. Languages, however, are constantly changing. This chapter was designed to impart this knowledge and to enable the teacher to draw from the vast storehouse of interesting information provided by linguistic, cultural, and social changes.

1.2 Indo-European

The Germanic language group to which English and German belong is part of a still larger language family known as Indo-European (Indogermanisch, Indoeuropäisch), consisting of the following language groups:

- Indic, documented since 1500 B.C. by Old Indic (Vedic, Sanskrit). Modern Indic languages are Hindi, Bengali, Pali, Hindustani, Urdu, Romany.
- Iranian, documented by Old Persian 550 B.C., Avestic 6th century B.C.
- Armenian, documented since the 16th century A.D.
- Albanian, since the 6th century A.D.
- Baltic: Lithuanian, Lettish or Latvian; Old Prussian, the latter documented 1300-1600, now extinct.
- Slavic: Old Church Slavic (Old Bulgarian from the 9th century). Modern languages: Bulgarian, Serbo-Croatian, Slovenian; Polish, Czech, Slovak, Wendic; Russian, Byelorussian, Ukrainian.
- Hellenic, documented by Mycenic in 1400 B.C. and by Aeolic, Ionic-Attic, and Doric since the 8th century B.C. Modern Greek.
- Italic: Latin since the sixth century B.C. Modern Romance languages: Provençal, French, Picard, Walloon; Italian, Rhaeto-Romanic; Spanish, Portuguese, Catalan, Galician; Rumanian.
- Celtic: Gallic 200-300 B.C., Old Irish since the 8th century A.D. Modern Irish, Manx (the latter nearly extinct); Breton, Cornish, Pictish, Welsh; Gaulish.
- Germanic, see 1.3.

Indo-European is not documented by written records. The proto-language of the language groups above was reconstructed during the nineteenth century by scholars (1.9) who noticed striking similarities between the oldest written records of many languages. It was primarily the correspondences between sounds that made the scholars assume that these languages must have evolved from a common proto-language.

Below are some examples from Old English, Modern German, Latin,Greek, Russian, Lithuanian, Irish, and Sanskrit:

	'heart'	'foot'	'corn'	'wolf'	'yoke'
OE	heorte	fōt	corn	wulf	geo
NHG	Herz	Fuß	Korn	Wolf	Joch
Lat	cord-	ped-	grānum	lūpus	iugum
Gr	kardis	podos	(geron)	lukos	zugon
Rus	serdtse	(podu)	zerno	volk	igo
Lit	sirdis	peda	žirnis	vilkas	iungas
Ir	cride		grān		cuing
Skt	hrd-	pad-	(jirna)	vrkas	yugam

A systematic comparison of sounds and grammatical forms made possible the reconstruction of the proto-language, Indo-European. Since the reconstruction represents a formula arrived at through the comparative method and since no written documents exist, the sounds and forms of Indo-European are always quoted with an asterisk. Thus, the reconstructed Indo-European forms of the above words are:

IE *kerd- *ped/pōd- *grno- *wlkwo-/wlpo *yugo-

The reconstructed Indo-European language had to account for all attested data in the documented languages. It is therefore assumed that Indo-European must have been highly complex. Its sound system, for example, may have comprised two different *k-sounds, one pronounced at the palate, one at the velum (2.31). The palatal *k appears in Indic, Baltic, and Slavic and in Armenian and Albanian as s or š, but it remains k in all other languages. For this reason, the former languages are sometimes grouped together as Satem-languages (<Avestic satəm 'hundred') and the latter as Centum languages (<Latin centum 'hundred'). However, a classification such as this, based on the development of only one item, is used with caution.

The Indo-European vowels *e and *o (rarely *a and *ə) alternated in etymologically-related words due to variations of pitch and stress (2.51). The vowels could appear in various grades (lengthened *ē and *ō, normal *e, *o, reduced *ə or zero). This phenomenon is called ablaut 'vowel gradation'[1] and it appears in the Germanic strong verbs (1.34; 3.133) where it functions in tense formation.

Similarly, the Indo-European inflectional system must have been highly complex, nouns probably had eight cases (4.124), and verbs were inflected for three voices, eight tenses, and four moods (3.12).

In the absence of written documents, it is impossible to establish the ethnic, racial, or cultural provenance of the speakers of Indo-European. Careful assumptions have been made on the basis of words attested in the majority of IE languages: the Indo-Europeans must have been herders of domesticated animals (goats, beef), who measured the time by the moon and lived in a paternalistic society. Only the

[1] The German terms Ablaut and Umlaut are used as technical terms in English throughout the book.

western Indo-European languages have cognates (<Latin *cognatus* 'born together') (*urverwandte Wörter*) attesting to the products of agriculture, such as rye and barley.

The homeland of the Indo-Europeans has been discussed extensively by scholars who now generally agree that the IE people must have lived in what is now western Russia during the late Stone Age (2500-2000 B.C.) and that they migrated at different times to various areas on the Eurasian continent.

1.3 Germanic

The group of Indo-Europeans that became known as Germanic (*Germanisch*) migrated to southern Scandinavia and northern Germany around 2000 B.C. By 800 B.C., the Germanic peoples had spread south and west, reaching the Rhine by approximately 500 B.C.

The first contact of these people with the Romans, who called them *Germani*, marks the beginning of recorded history. The name *Germani* is highly disputed; it may come from a Celtic root meaning 'those by the hot springs.' Roman writers (Caeser, Pliny, Tacitus) cite Germanic words such as *ūrus* 'bison' (*Auerochs*), *alcēs* 'elk' (*Elch*), *sāpo* 'soap' (*Seife*), and *glēsum* 'glass, amber' (*Glas*). Some Latin words also entered the Germanic language during this period, such as *mīlia* (*passum*) 'a thousand paces, mile' (*Meile*), *saccus* 'sack' (*Sack*), (*via*) *strāta* 'paved road, street' (*Straße*), and *coquus* 'cook' (*Koch*).

Germanic seems to have been a relatively uniform language at one time. However, by the beginning of the Christian era, five distinct dialects had developed:

(1) North Germanic, giving rise later to Danish, Norwegian, Icelandic, and Swedish.
(2) East Germanic, documented by Gothic and, very scantily, by Burgundian and Vandal, but extinct in the following centuries.

West Germanic, subdivided into three dialects:

(3) North Sea Germanic, the ancestral dialect of English and Frisian and of some characteristics of Flemish, Dutch, and Low German (1.41),
(4) Weser-Rhine Germanic, which included some elements of modern Dutch, and Low and High German,
(5) Elbe Germanic, the principal source of High German (1.42).

The North Germanic speakers moved further into Scandinavia and settled Iceland. Runic inscriptions dating from 300 A.D. attest to their presence. Danish peoples invaded England and established a temporary kingdom there, bringing many Scandinavian words into English. Another group of Scandinavians, known as Vikings or Northmen, settled northern France and assumed the French language and culture, which they brought along when they invaded England in 1066 as Normans.

The East Germanic speakers, mainly the Goths, moved eastward toward the Black Sea. From the fourth century A.D., we have the first significant body of writing in a Germanic language: the Gothic bible translation by bishop Ulfilas, or Wulfilas, who died in 381 A.D.

In the fourth and fifth centuries, pressures from the Slavs in the east and, possibly, inundations or overpopulation caused vast migrations in middle Europe (Völkerwanderungen). Groups of East Germanic speakers, notably the Visigoths, Ostrogoths, and Vandals, wandered through Europe into Italy, Spain, and northern Africa.

Of the West Germanic speakers, the group of North Sea Germanic tribes included the Angles and Saxons, who settled parts of England and forced the Celts into Ireland, Scotland, Wales, and Cornwall. The written language of England, which emerged around 700 A.D. as Old English, is completely Germanic, but contains some Latin loan words, since the Romans had occupied England previously. Those Saxons remaining on the continent are documented by the Old Saxon language from 800 A.D. (1.41).

The Weser-Rhine Germanic peoples later appeared as Franks, some of whom remained in what is now Germany, and others moved to what was to become France, to which they gave its name. Elbe Germanic speakers went south and became known as Alemannians, Bavarians, and Langobards. The written language of the Franks, Alemannians, and Bavarians, preserved since 750 A.D., is known as Old High German (1.42ff).

Germanic and its sub-dialects were reconstructed on the basis of the earliest written documents in a manner similar to the reconstruction of Indo-European. Germanic has several characteristics which distinguish it from all other Indo-European languages: stress accent, consonant shift, vowels, structural innnovations and vocabulary.

1.31 Germanic Stress Accent

The Indo-European stress and pitch accent (2.5) was movable and could fall on any syllable of a word, as shown in the Greek paradigm of 'father:'

NOM	sg	pater	pl	patéres
ACC		patéra		patéras
DAT		patrí		patrási
GEN		patrós		paterōn
VOC		páter		patéres

In the Germanic languages, the accent was fixed on the stem syllable of a word which, in most instances, is the first, except for words with inseparable prefixes, such as bekómmen-becóme (3.131).

This fixed initial stress gave rise to the typically Germanic form of poetry known as alliteration (e Alliteration, r Strabreim), in which identical initial consonants rhyme with one another, as exemplified by the OHG Hildebrandlied:

nu scal mih suasat chind   suertu hauwan
breton mit sinu billiu   eddo in imo to banin werdan

'now shall (my) sweet child hit me with (his) sword
fell me with his axe or I become his murderer'

Alliteration survives in many English and German idiomatic expressions, frequently of word pairs with the same initial consonant: Wind und Wetter, Nacht und Nebel, Haus und Hof, Mann und Maus 'wind and weather, (night and fog), house and (court) hearth, man and mouse.'

Another consequence of the initial stress was the weakening and, frequently in English, the eventual loss of final inflectional syllables (1.423):

OHG helpfames>NHG helfen   OE helpaþ>NE (we) help

1.32 Germanic Consonant Shift

The most sweeping change that distinguishes Germanic from all other Indo-European languages was the Germanic consonant shift (e germanische or erste Lautverschiebung), also known as Grimm's Law, for the German scholar Jacob Grimm who systematically formulated the change. The IE system of stops was completely restructured in Germanic.

IE	*p	*t	*k	*k^w	*b	*d	*g	*g^w	*bh	*dh	*gh	*gh^w
	|	|	|	|	|	|	|	|	|	|	|	|
Gmc	*f	*þ	*x	*x^w	*p	*t	*k	*k^w	*b	*d	*g	*g^w

The Indo-European voiceless stops *p, *t, *k (2.31) became the corresonding voiceless spirants *f, *þ, *x (the runic symbol þ represents English voiceless 'th', x represents German <ch> as in lachen). The Indo-European voiced stops *b, *d, *g became voiceless *p, *t, *k in Germanic, and the Indo-European aspirated voiced stops *bh, *dh, *gh became unaspirated *b, *d, *g, for example:

IE *p>Gmc *f: Skt purú-, Gk polú, Got/OHG filu, NHG viel
IE *b>Gmc *p: Lith slabnas 'weak,' Got slēpan, NE sleep
IE *bh>Gmc *b: Skt abhi, Gk amphi, OHG umbi, NHG um

However, there are two exceptions to the Germanic consonant shift which involve different--but regular--developments of the above consonants in certain surroundings.

First, the Indo-European voiceless stops *p, *t, *k did not become spirants after *s: Lat speciō 'look' NHG spähen, Lat stō 'stand' NHG stehen; Lat scabō 'scratch' NHG schaben.

Secondly, the phenomenon known as Verner's Law explains such startling alternations as schneiden-geschnitten, ziehen-gezogen, and English 'was-were.' These alternations were caused by the IE stress accent: If the IE stress followed the sounds in question, the Germanic voiced spirants *b, *d, *g resulted, and IE *s appeared as Gmc *z,

West Gmc *r. In some related forms, therefore, voiced and voiceless consonants alternate, such as

Gmc *x and *g: OHG ziohan, past sg zoh, pl zugum;
NHG ziehen, zog 'tug'

1.33 Germanic Vowels

The regular alternations of Indo-European vowels, called ablaut (1.2) was systematized in the Germanic languages for tense formation in strong verbs (3.133). Because of the different grades (normal, lengthened, reduced, and zero) in which the IE vowels appeared and the subsequent developments of vowels in certain environments, it is possible to group the Germanic strong verbs into six classes. A seventh class was formed at a later date; it includes such verbs as NHG laufen-lief-gelaufen and heißen-hieß-geheißen, etc. An example of strong verbs (NHG binden 'bind, tie' - Class III) is given below:

CL.	NORMAL GRADE INFINITIVE	NORMAL GRADE PAST SING.	REDUCED GRADE PAST PLURAL	REDUCED GRADE PAST PARTIC.
III	IE *e/*o+nasal + consonant			
	IE *em/*en+cons	*om/*on+cons	*m̥/*n̥ + cons	*m̥/*n̥ + cons
	Gmc *em/en+cons	*am/*an+cons	*um/*un +cons	*um/*un + cons
	OHG bintan	bant	buntum	gibuntan
	NHG binden	band	banden	gebunden

The preceding chart demonstrates that vowels underwent certain qualitative and quantitative changes. The IE syllabic consonants *m̥ and *n̥ are reflected in Gmc *um and *un, the latter a negation prefix un-freundlich 'unfriendly.' In Latin, instead of a u, an i arose, giving the negation in- (in-kohärent 'in-coherent'), and in Greek the same syllable appeared as a- (a-moralisch 'a-moral').

Germanic *u (as above in OHG gibuntan) remained u when followed by a nasal+consonant, but it changed to o in other environments. Therefore a subclass of strong III verbs arose, for example NHG helfen-half-geholfen. The strong verbs in class IIIa and IIIb differ only in the vowel of the past participle. Modern classification of NHG strong verbs will be discussed in 3.133.

Another development of Germanic vowels relevant to English and German is the loss of nasals before spirants: Gmc *anx, *inx, *unx lost the nasals before spirants: *x (2.31), and the vowel was lengthened to *āx, *īx, *ūx. A reflex of this development is NHG brachte 'brought' from *branxta, the simple past tense of bringen, as well as denken-dachte. In the North Sea Germanic dialects, nasals were not only lost before *x, but also before the spirants *f, *s, *þ. Thus, cognates containing a nasal in German but none in English can be recognized:

OLD ENGLISH	ENGLISH	NEW HIGH GERMAN
fīf	'five'	fünf
ūs	'us'	uns
ōder	'other'	ander

1.34 Germanic Structural Innovations

The highly inflected system of Indo-European verbs was so drastically reduced in the Germanic languages that only two inflected tenses remained: the present tense (er sing-t 'he sing-s') and the past tense (er sang- 'he sang-'). All other tenses (present and past perfect and future) are formed by the combination of an auxiliary with a non-finite form of the verb: er hat/hatte...gesungen, er wird...singen 'he has/had sung, he will sing. (3.17ff).

The most important innovation characteristic of the Germanic languages was a new type of verb, called weak, the tenses of which are formed not with ablaut, but with a dental suffix: danken-dank-te-ge-dank-t 'thank-thank-ed-thank-ed.' In modern German and English, such verbs are more common than strong verbs (3.132).

Another innovation typical of the Germanic languages was the development of a two-fold inflection of adjectives: a determining inflection which used the endings of the determiner (der Wein, rot-er Wein), and a reduced inflection, which used the endings of a type of noun (1.52) (mit dem rot-en Wein). In English, adjective inflections have completely disappeared (4.14ff).

1.35 Germanic Vocabulary

The Germanic vocabulary exhibits a number of words for which no cognates in other Indo-European languages can be found, such as 'rain,' 'ring,' 'drive,' 'broad,' 'hold,' and 'meat.' It is possible that these words were lost in the other IE languages, or that the Germanic speakers borrowed these words from languages that have become extinct.

Prehistoric borrowings from Celtic suggest that the Celts had a culture and technology superior to that of the Germanic tribes: Celtic rig 'king' gave the German noun Reich and the adjective reich 'rich,' as well as the syllable -rich- in names such as Friedrich and Richard. The words Eid 'oath' and Amt 'office' show that Celtic political institutions may have been influential. In addition to the names of numerous towns (Breisach, Mainz, Worms), rivers (Rhein, Tauber), and mountains (Taunus), the words Eisen 'iron,' Blei 'lead,' and Glocke 'bell' seem to have been borrowed from Celtic.

The earliest borrowings from Latin came through contact with the Romans along the lower Rhine. Since these words participated in the OHG consonant shift (1.421), their forms differ slightly in German and English, for example Lat palus 'pole' gave German Pfahl, campus 'field' Kampf, pondus 'pound' Pfund.

Numerous words in the Germanic languages attest to the preoccupation of the Germanic peoples with heroic deeds and war, such as OHG *hild*, *haþu*, *wīg*, *gund*, all meaning 'battle, contest.' Reflexes of these words can be found in many German names, such as *Hildegund*, *Hedwig*, *Gudrun*, etc.

The outlook of the Germanic peoples was fatalistic, and even their gods were mortal. The highest god was *Wotan* (or *Wodan*, North Germanic *Odin*), the god of war *Thor*, and the goddess of fertility and love *Freia*. These deities are still used in the names of the days of the week: 'Wednesday, Thursday, Friday' *Donnerstag*, *Freitag*.

1.4 Old Saxon and Old High German

Around the year 750 A.D., we find two distinct dialect groups in what is now Germany: Old Saxon and Old High German.

Old Saxon (*Altsächsisch*) and Old Low Franconian (*Altniederfränkisch*) were the dialects spoken in the northern German plains which gave rise to Low German (*Pflatt-*, *Niederdeutsch*).

Old High German (*Althochdeutsch*) was a group of dialects spoken in middle and southern Germany, in parts of Switzerland and in Austria. The concepts of 'low' and 'high' are therefore geographical: Low Germany is a low plain, and from the middle of Germany southward, the topography becomes increasingly mountainous.

Old High German was subdivided into various dialects. In the southwest, Alemannic (*Alemannisch*) was spoken and written mainly in the monastery of St. Gall. In the southeast, in parts of modern Bavaria and Austria, the Bavarian (*Bairisch*[1]) dialects were spoken. The middle of Germany comprised the Franconian dialects (*Fränkisch*): East Franconian (*Ostfränkisch*), with its literary center in Fulda, Rhenish Franconian (*Rheinfränkisch*) and Moselle Franconian (*Moselfränkisch*), the latter around Trier, and Ripuarian (*Ripuarisch*), around Köln.

Alemannic and Bavarian are often grouped together as 'Upper German' (*Oberdeutsch*), while the Franconian dialects are grouped together as 'Middle German' (*Mitteldeutsch*). See map, page 38.

1.41 Old Saxon

Old Saxon (*Altsächsisch*) is quite similar to Old English, since the latter developed, at least in part, from the dialect of the Saxons who had migrated to England a few centuries earlier. Old Saxon is preserved in a beautiful poetic document known as *Heliand* 'Savior' (c. 830), which was probably commissioned by King Louis the Pious to christianize the Saxons. In this alliterative poem, Christ

[1] The adjective for the land Bavaria (*Bayern*) is *bay(e)risch*; for the dialect, *bairisch* is used.

is depicted as a Germanic king, the disciples as his loyal knights and vassals, and the towns of the Holy Land have the appearance of Saxon Burgen. A smaller document is the Altsächsische Genesis 'Old Saxon Genesis.'

The difference between Old Saxon and Old High German lies primarily in the consonants, which in Old Saxon show no sign of the Old High German consonant shift (1.421) and are therefore like the English (Germanic) consonants.

Here is the beginning of the poetical version of the Lord's Prayer from the Heliand:

Fadar ūsa firiho barno,
thu bist an dem hōhon himila rīkea,
geuuīhid sī thīn namo uuordo gehuuilico.
Cuma thīn craftag rīki...

'Father our, of the children of men,
you are in the high heavenly realm,
hallowed be thy name with each word.
Come thy mighty kingdom...'

Old Saxon developed into Middle Low German (Mittelniederdeutsch) in subsequent centuries, and for a brief time it became an important trade language in seaports around the Baltic Sea. During the bloom of the Hanse, a federation of seafaring merchants centered primarily in Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, Low German was widely used.

Since Low German did not become the standard language, even though it contributed greatly to the vocabularly, the following discussion will concentrate only on the development of High German. Low German as a modern dialect: 1.82.

1.42 Old High German

The Old High German documents which have come down to us since about 750 A.D. are most frequently religious and reflect the process of christianization of the German peoples. The documents are primarily translations from Latin or adaptations of the gospels, written and copied in monasteries. They show the dialects of the scribes or of the area in which the monastery was located.

The largest bodies of OHG writing are two gospel harmonies: Tatian, a translation from Latin in the East Franconian dialect aroud 830, and the Evangelienbuch by Otfrid von Weißenburg, an original poetic version, written in the Rhenish Franconian dialect during the years 867-871. A hundred years later, Notker Labeo of St. Gall translated numerous works of classical, pedagogical, and religious nature into his Alemannic dialect, using a curious mixture of German and Latin by maintaining whole Latin phrases in his texts. The year of Notker's death in 1022 marks the end of OHG literary activity.

Only a few documents with motifs from the Germanic past have been preserved from what must have been a larger body of early poetry: The Merseburger Zaubersprüche are charms

of pagen nature, and the *Hildebrandlied* is a fragment of an alliterative heroic epic.

The documents reflect a great diversity of dialects and, at the same time, the struggle to adapt the Latin alphabet to the Old High German language.

1.421 Old High German Consonant Shift

The most striking difference between Old High German and all other Germanic languages, including Low German, is the effect of the High German consonant shift (*althochdeutsche* or *zweite Lautverschiebung*). It occurred before the writing of the documents which have been preserved and must have begun in the south and spread northward with decreasing intensity, never reaching Low German territory.

The Germanic voiceless stops *p, *t, *k were shifted to the corresponding affricates (2.334) pf, ts (spelled NHG <z>) and kx in word-initial position, when doubled, or after m, n, l, r. After vowels, the voiceless stops became the corresponding spirants ff, zz (spelled NHG <ss, ß>) and x (spelled NHG <ch>), as shown below.

GERMANIC	*p		*t		*k	
OHG	pf-	-ff-	ts-	-zz	kx-	-x-
NHG spelling	<pf	-f(f)-	z-	-ss- / -ß-	k-	-ch->

Examples include the following:

	ENGLISH	OHG		ENGLISH	OHG		ENGLISH	OHG
p-	path	pfad	t-	tongue	zunga	k-	calf	chalb
pp	apple	apful	tt	set	setzen	kk	lick	lecchōn
mp	stamp	stampfōn	nt	plant	pflanzōn	nk	drink	trinchan
lp	help	helpfan	lt	salt	salz	lk	folk	folch
rp	harp	harpfa	rt	heart	herza	rk	stark	starch
Vp	open	offan	Vt	water	wazzar	Vk	make	mahhōn
Vp	sheep	scāf	Vt	hot	heiz	Vk	book	buoh

However, in certain environments, no shift occurred. For example, after s, the stops p, t, k remained unchanged, and t was not shifted after f or before r:

	ENGLISH	OHG		ENGLISH	OHG
sp	spew	spiwan	tr	tread	tretan
st	stark	starch	ft	loft	luft
sk	scold	skeltan			

The consonant shift occurred to the fullest extent only in the Upper German dialects of Bavarian and Alemannic. In Alemannic, the affricate kx is preserved to this day.

In Middle Germany, the Franconian dialects show a limited spread of the shift. Initial k- remains unshifted in all Franconian dialects; in Rhenish Franconian, p resists the shift to pf, and in Middle Franconian, t remains in some words of high frequency, such as dat, wat. Many dialect distinctions in modern German are due to the OHG consonant shift (1.82). Low German shows no influence of the shift.

Another change related to the OHG consonant shift is the change of Germanic *d to OHG t, which can be seen in numerous English-NHG correspondences such as day-Tag, leader-Leiter, etc.

In all German dialects, including Low German, the Germanic spirant *þ became d: thing-Ding, leather-Leder, etc.

In summary, therefore, the Germanic consonants which are identical with the English consonants changed in the following manner in OHG:

Gmc	*sp	*p		*st *tr *ft	*t		*sk	*k		*d	*þ
OHG	sp	pf	ff	st tr ft	ts	zz	sk	kx	x	t	d
NHG											
phonetic	[sp	pf	f	st tr ft	ts	s	š	k	x/ç	t	d]
spelling	<sp	pf	f(f)	st	z	ss ß	sch	k	ch	t	d>

Knowledge of the OHG consonant shift enables the German teacher to recognize cognates and teach German vocabulary in an interesting manner and show the close relationship between English and German. If the sound corespondences above are pointed out to students, they will be able to recognize many German words.

In Old English and in some German dialects (1.82), intervocalic Germanic *b (*ƀ) was reflected as <v> or <f>, but in most Old High German dialects as <b>, resulting in another set of cognates in modern English and German, such as Leber-liver, sieben-seven.

Note that the changes described above are by no means arbitrary;; they occurred in a highly systematic and physiologically understandable manner. For example, the sounds /p, t, k/ are all stops, and they differ from /f, s, x/ only in one feature: /p/ is a voiceless bilabial stop, /f/ a voiceless bilabial spirant. Within the phonemic system of a language (2.1), changes occur in groups of similar phonemes and in a systematic manner.

1.422 Old High German Vowels

In the West and North Germanic dialects (1.3), stressed vowels had a tendency to assimilate to an *i or *j in a following unstressed syllable. This phenomenon is known as umlaut, or 'vowel mutation.'

Old High German had inherited alternations such as (er) hilfit - (wir) helfamēs, in which i and e alternate in the same stem from German. e remained before back vowels (2.41), but i appeared when followed by another i.

During the OHG period this umlaut spread, although it was not reflected consistently in writing. Only during the Middle High German period was the umlaut reflected in the written language:

	OHG	MHG	NHG
e - i	geban, gibit	geben, gibet	geben, gibt
ā - ǟ	tāt, tāti	tāt, tæte	tat, täte
a - e	gast, gesti	gast, geste	Gast, Gäste
ō - ȫ	nōt, nōti	nōt, nœ̄te	Not, Nöte
o - ö	holz, holzir	holz, hölzer	Holz, Hölzer
ū - ǖ	hūs, hūsir	hūs, hiuser	Haus, Häuser
u - ü	zug, zugi	zuc, züge	Zug, Züge
au-äu	loufan, loufit	loufen, löufet	laufen, läuft

In the Bavarian dialect, however, the consonant clusters -ck-, -hh-, and -tz- hindered the umlaut, especially of u, so that pairs such as nützen-nutzen 'to be useful' have come into New High German.

The Old High German full long and short vowels in unstressed syllables were progressively weakened to /ə/ during the course of the OHG period. This can be seen when comparing word pairs written in an early (Tatian, c. 830) and in a late (Notker, c. 1010) OHG text:

	TATIAN	NOTKER		TATIAN	NOTKER
-i	tagalīhhaz	tagelicha	-i-	rīhhi	rīche
-e	unsarēn	unseren	-i-	himile	himele
-o	giheilagōt	geheiligot	-a-	tagalīhhaz	tagelicha

This weakening of vowels in unstressed syllables continued into the Middle High German time at the end of which all unstresed syllables only have /ə/.[1]

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[1]Most of the examples are quoted form William G. Moulton, "The German Language." German Language and Literature, Karl Weimar, Ed., Englewood Cliffs, 1974. 1-62. by permission of the editor.

1.423 Old High German Structure

The Old High German morphological system (<Greek *morphē* 'form') (*e Morphologie*, *e Formenlehre*) is characterized by the gradual decline and subsequent merger of the manifold inflectional classes inherited from Germanic and, on the other hand, the development of analytic forms to express grammatical categories, such as nominal gender or verbal tenses.

Verbs:

Old High German had two verb types which still exist in modern German: strong verbs in which tenses are indicated by a vowel change determined by ablaut (1.33; 3.133), and weak verbs in which tenses are indicated by a dental suffix (1.34; 3.132).

Old High German strong verbs were inflected in the following manner:

neman '*nehmen*' to take'

Present Indicative:	sg	(*ich*-form)	*nimu*
		(*du*-form)	*nimus*
		(*er*-form)	*nimit*
	pl	(*wir*-form)	*nemumēs* /-*amēs*, -*emēs*, -*ēm*
		(*ihr*-form)	*nemet* /-*at*
		(*sie*-form)	*nemant*
Special Subjunctive:	sg	(*ich*-form)	*neme*
		(*du*-form)	*nemēs*
		(*er*-form)	*neme*
	pl	(*wir*-form)	*nemēm*
		(*ihr*-form)	*nemet*
		(*sie*-form)	*nemēn*
Imperative:	sg	(*du*-form)	*nim*
	pl	(*wir*-form)	*nemamēs* /-*emēs*; *nemēm*
	pl	(*ihr*-form)	*nemet* /-*at*
Infinitive:			*neman*
Present Participle:			*nemanti* /-*enti*
Past Indicative:	sg	(*ich*-form)	*nam*
		(*du*-form)	*nāmi*
		(*er*-form)	*nam*

	pl	(wir-form)	nāmum
		(ihr-form)	nāmut
		(sie-form)	nāmum
General Subjunctive:	sg	(ich-form)	nāmi
		(du-form)	nāmīs
		(er-form)	nāmi
	pl	(wir-form)	nāmīm
		(ihr-form)	nāmīt
		(sie-form)	nāmīn
Past participle:			ginoman

For weak verbs, three classes were distinguished: (1) a class with an infinitive ending in -en (wecken<wakjan 'to wake someone,' derived from the adjective waka- with the verbal suffix -jan, forming a causative verb; 3.132), (2) a class with an infinitive ending in -ōn (wahhōn 'to watch' 'bewachen', formed from nouns or other verbs intensifying them), and (3) a class with the infinitive ending in -ēn (wahhēn 'to be awake' 'wach sein'). By late OHG, these distinctions had vanished and in MHG, the infinitive consistently ended in -(e)n.

During the Old High German period, the analytic forms of the present and past perfect (3.17ff) and future tenses were developed, in addition to the passive voice (3.18).

Nouns:

The OHG nouns display a variety of classes which developed from the differentiation of stem-forming devices in Germanic. Numerous vocalic stems of nouns gave rise to the NHG 'strong' declension, and a consonantal stem was the origin of the NHG 'weak' der-nouns.

Below are some examples of OHG nouns:

		der-Nouns *a-stem 'Tag'	das-Nouns *a-stem 'Wort'	die-Nouns *ō-stem 'Gabe'
Sg	N	tag	wort	geba
	A	tag	wort	geba
	D	tage	worte	gebu
	G	tages	wortes	geba
Pl	N	taga	wort	gebā
	A	taga	wort	gebā
	D	tagun	wortun	gebōn
	G	tago	worto	gebōno

		*ja-stem 'Hirte'	*ja-stem 'kin'	*jo-stem 'Sünde'
Sg	N	hirti	kunni	sunte
	A	hirti	kunni	sunte
	D	hirte	kunn(i)e	suntu
	G	hirtes	kunnes	sunta
Pl	N	hirte	kunni	suntā
	A	hirte	kunni	suntā
	D	hirtun	kunnim	suntōn
	G	hirto	kunnio	suntōno

		*i-stem 'Gast'	*iz-stem 'Lamm'	*i-stem 'Gunst'
Sg	N	gast	lamb	anst
	A	gast	lamb	anst
	D	gaste	lambe	ensti
	G	gastes	lambes	ensti
Pl	N	gesti	lembir	ensti
	A	gesti	lembir	ensti
	D	gestin	lembirum	enstim
	G	gestio	lembiro	enstio

Consonantal stems:

		*an-stem 'Hahn'	*an-stem 'Herz'	*on-stem 'Zunge'
Sg	N	hano	herza	zunga
	A	hanon	herza	zunga
	D	hanen	herzen	zungūn
	G	hanen	herzen	zungūn
Pl	N	hanon	herzun	zungūn
	A	hanōm	herzun	zungūn
	D	hanōm	herzōm	zungōm
	G	hanōno	herzōno	zungōno

The major factors which simplified the NHG noun system were the weakening and occasional loss of unstressed syllables and the subsequent merger of forms, as well as analogy. In NHG, only der-nouns distinguish between a consonantal ('weak,' e.g. Mensch) and a vocalic ('strong,' e.g. Tag) class, and only one das-noun preserves reflexes of the n-stems: Herz. In the die-nouns, the only reflex of the n-stems is in compound nouns, such as Sonnenschein where the -n- is a remnant of the old genitive. However,

the various stems greatly influenced the formation of the NHG plural morphemes (4.123). Through analogy, vocalic alternations of the stems of the singular (*anst*-*ensti*) were leveled.

Adjectives:

The typically Germanic two-fold declension of adjectives (1.34) was fully developed by OHG. The determining inflection used the morphemes of the determiner (or pronoun), and the reduced inflection used the morphemes of the *n*-stems nouns (*hano*, *herza*, *zunga*, above) (4.14ff).

The comparative of adjectives was formed with *-ir-* or *-ōr-*: *rehtiro*, *rehtōro* '*richtiger*,' and their superlative with *-ist-* or *-ōst-*: *rehisto*, *rehtōsto*, '*richtigst*' (4.144).

Adverbs:

Adverbs could be formed by adding -o to an adjective stem: adj. *festi*, adv *fasto*. Semantically, the adjectives and adverbs sometimes divided, as in NHG *fest* 'fast, tight' and *fast* 'nearly' or *sconi*>*schön* 'beautiful' and *scōno*>*schon* 'already' (3.411).

1.424 Old High German Vocabulary

The vocabulary of Old High German is characterized by the tremendous influx of loan words from Latin and Greek due to christianization and by loan translations of Christian concepts, introduced primarily through the Anglo-Saxon mission. On the other hand, Germanic words referring to the pagan past were lost.

Innumerable words were introduced into Old High German from Latin. Such words can be recognized as OHG imports, since they did not participate in the OHG consonant shift (1.421) which, at that time, was no longer in operation. Such words include *Kapelle* 'chapel,' *Brief* 'letter,' and *predigen* 'preach.'

The material culture also reflects Latin influence. Romans had borrowed the Greek words *discos* 'disk' which originally meant the object of the disk-thrower. Later it assumed the meaning of 'dish' (as in Modern English), and in German it came to mean 'table' *Tisch*. Since the word for 'dish' was no longer in German after this semantic change, the early loan *scutella*, OHG *scuzzila*, NHG *Schüssel* took on that meaning. The Germanic peoples rested on the floor while eating; with the introduction of the raised table, a chair became necessary and was expressed by the Gmc term OHG *stuol* NHG *Stuhl*. Since chairs could often be folded, they were also called *falti-stuol* which was borrowed into French as 'fauteuil.' *Schemel* 'stool' comes from Latin *scamilus*.

The monks cultivated cloister gardens. Through their contact with Mediterranean flora, they introduced *Rose*,

Tulpe, Lilie, Petersilie, Lattich, Salbei, and other botanical terms.

The Germanic peoples had their runic alphabet which was scratched into wood or stone and was assumed to possess magical character. The art of interpreting magical runes was called lesen 'to collect' in OHG, while it was 'read' raten in OE. Staffs of beech wood with runic symbols, Buchstaben, were used to translate Latin littera after contact with Roman writing, and the German terms 'reading' were maintained. The English term 'write' is also reminiscent of the runes; it is a cognate to German ritzen or reißen 'to scratch.' German used the Latin scribere 'schreiben' instead. Many other terms referring to learning were borrowed from Latin, such as Tinte 'ink,' Schule 'school,' Pult 'pulpit, lectern,' and Linie 'line.'

Many Christian concepts were expressed by loan translations, using native material, for example Gewissen translating Latin conscientia, Gemeinde Lat communio, Gotteshaus 'house of God' domus dei, and Wohltat 'good deed' beneficium.

At the same time, Germanic words underwent semantic changes through christianization. Demut originally meant 'servile mood, service,' containing Gothic þius 'servant,' which survives in Dienst, Dirne, dienen. Influenced by Latin humilitas, Demut came to mean 'humility.' OHG sunta meant 'guilt of any kind,' yet it assumed the meaning of 'sin' Sünde from Latin peccatum. In the same manner, Tugend changed from 'fitness' to 'moral virtue.'

Words denoting the pagan past were lost or, sometimes, remained in compounds. OHG wih 'temple' survives in Weihe and Weihnachten, while haruc 'holy stone pile' and bloathūs (Got hunsl) 'blood sacrifice' vanished without a trace.

The word wurt, denoting inescapable fate, was also lost. An animal for sacrifice was zebar; it survives in Ungeziefer 'animal unfit for sacrifice, vermin.' 'To sing, to invoke magic' was bigalan, and the magical song was galdar, surviving in Nachtigall 'nightingale.' Kobold and Unhold contain hold, 'a good spirit.' The last part in names such as Hohenlohe, Oslo, and Waterloo reflect lōh 'holy woods.'

The OHG period knew little of a linguistic or political unity. The various tribes referred to themselves with their tribal names fränkisch, alemannisch, and bairisch, rather than using the term deutsch. A concept of linguistic unity arose only in the Middle High German period. Deutsch comes from a German adjective OHG diutisk, meaning 'belonging to the people, peoplish.'

The term les Allemands is still the national name of the Germans in French, witnessing close geographical neighborhood. The Italians call the Germans Tedeschi, a Romanized form of Deutsch, and the Slavic peoples refer to them as Njemtzy 'the not speaking ones,' testifying to early contact without comprehension. The word 'German' may

be of Celtic origin and was used by the Romans (1.3). The term 'Teutonic,' originally a Germanic tribe's name, was used widely in English to denote both Germanic and German, but it is coming out of general use.

1.5 Middle High German

The Middle High German period is commonly considered to extend from 1050 to 1500, although transitions are fluid and frequently determined by non-linguistic factors. Delineation of periods in language development are by necessity arbitrary.

During the MHG period, the area settled by people speaking Germanic languages was changing. The Franks, in what is today France, became Romanized as did the Langobards in northern Italy. On the other hand, the eastward spread of settlers speaking a variety of Germanic dialects began the eastern colonization (e Ostkolonisation). The move beyond the rivers Elbe and Saale into Slavic territory and further east was to continue for several centuries, only to be reversed by the vast migrations westward after World War II (1.82).

While the literary activities in the OHG period were centered in monasteries and limited to the clerics, the MHG centers of culture and literature were the courts of princes and noblemen, and the poets were knights who frequently moved from one court to another. The MHG literature therefore reflects attempts to avoid obvious dialectal traits.

In poetry, the genre of Minnesang was developed. Minne is the unfulfilled love and admiration of the poet for a noble lady of higher social status. The poets also often composed melodies for their poems, and later such lyrics gave rise to the Volkslied.

Below is a short sample of a song by the foremost poet of that time, Walter von Vogelweide (c. 1170-1230):

Herzeliebez frouwelīn,
got gebe dir hiute unt iemer guot!
Kunde ich baz gedenken dīn,
des hete ich willeclīchen muot.
Waz sol ich dir gesagen mē,
wan daz dir nieman holder ist denn ich?
Dā von ist mir vil wē.

'Dearest lady,
God may give you today and always good (things)!
If I could think of you better
for that I have a willing mind.
What more shall I tell you
than that no one likes you more than I?
This hurts me much.'

The epic works of the MHG period are the Nibelungenlied and the Gudrunlied. Both were written by unknown poets and used older Germanic motifs. French courtly stories dealing with the Arturian saga were woven into Tristan by Gottfried von Straßburg, Parzifal by Wolfgang von Eschenbach, and Erec and Iwein by Hartmann von Aue, who also wrote Gregorius and Der arme Heinrich which were based on legends.

Later, from these courtly epics, the Volksbuch developed, popular and less artistic versions which were read avidly by the increasingly literate public.

Medieval drama arose from the dramatization of biblical stories and motifs which were first performed in churches on holy days, and later in the market place.

Since legal and academic documents were written in Latin, (the first German university was founded in Prague in 1348) comparatively few secular MHG writings have come down to us. In the later MHG period, popular and didactic sermons, especially by Berthold von Regensburg, gave a larger body of prose writings, as did the works of the medieval mystics.

1.51 Middle High German Sounds

Although the Middle High German poets attempted to use a supra-regional language, the MHG spelling was rather erratic. Most text editions of MHG use a 'normalized' and more consistent spelling, indicating, for example, vowel length with diacritics (ē).

Consonants:

There were no major changes in the consonants from OHG to MHG and subsequently to NHG.

In normalized texts, the 'hardening' of final voiced stops (e Auslautverhärtung) is indicated. Although pronounced as voiceless, modern German spelling does not reflect this final hardening (2.61):

MHG	NHG
līp, lībes	Leib /laip/, Leibes /laibəs/ 'body('s)'
leit, leides	Leid /lait/, Leides /laidəs/ 'suffering('s)'
tac, tages	Tag /tak/, Tages /tāgəs/ 'day('s)'

Similarly, voiced stops are voiceless before /t/:

glouben, gloupte > glauben, /glaubən/, glaubte /glauptə/

In MHG, the OHG cluster -nt- became -nd-:

OHG	MHG, NHG
bintan	binden 'to bind'

In OHG and MHG <w> was pronounced like English /w/. It became /v/ before vowels, <u> after ā, and <b> after <l, r>.

MHG	NHG
warm	warm 'warm'
pfāwe	Pfau 'peacock'
gerwen	gerben 'to tan'

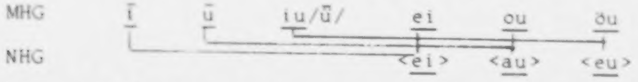
An 'unorganic /t/' was added to some words:

MHG	NHG
ackes	Axt 'axe'
māne	Mond 'moon'
nieman	niemand 'nobody'
obez	Obst 'fruit'

Vowels:

The Middle High German language is characterized by the weakening of the OHG full vowels which now emerge as /ə/ in unstressed syllables. The umlaut, already phonemic in OHG but not reflected in the written language, is spelled in the MHG period (1.422).

The NHG diphthongization began in the 12th century in Bavaria and spread slowly west and northward, although it did not uniformly reach Alemannic territory. MHG long vowels ī, ū, and iu /ǖ/ became diphthongized to ei, au, eu and merged with the diphthongs ei, ou, öu:



MHG mīn>NHG mein 'my'
MHG hūs>NHG Haus 'house'
MHG hiuser>NHG Häuser 'houses'
MHG geiz>NHG Geiß 'goat'
MHG loufen>NHG laufen 'run'
MHG löufet>NHG läuft 'runs'

In middle German dialects (1.4), the MHG diphthongs ie, uo, üe are monophthongized to /ī, ū, ǖ/. In the written language, long /ī/ is still expressed by <ie>. This change did not reach Upper German dialects and therefore, in Bavarian, it is still Liebe /liəbə/, Bruder /bruədʌ/, and müde /müədə/ (1.82).

MHG	ie /iə/	uo /uə/	üe /üə/
NHG	/ī/	/ū/	/ǖ/

MHG bieten /biətən/>NHG bieten /bītən/ 'to offer'
MHG fluot>NHG Flut /flūt/ 'flood'
MHG büecher>NHG Bücher /bǖçʌ/ 'books'

Vowel Quality:

In certain words, the vowel quality changed in some dialects, and these words entered the standard language:

Unrounding (2.41):

	MHG	NHG
ü > i	küssin	Kissen 'pillow'
ȫ > e	nörz	Nerz 'mink'
ȫu > ei	eröug(n)en	ereignen 'to happen'

Rounding before l, m, n, sch, and w:

i > u	finf	fünf 'five'
e > ö	lewe	Löwe 'lion'
ā > ō	māne	Mond 'moon'

Lowering before or after nasals:

u > o	sun	Sohn 'son'
ü > ö	künec	König 'king'

Vowel Quantity:

Under certain conditions, vowels were lengthened or shortened:

Lengthening of MHG vowels in open syllables:

bine	Biene /bīnə/ 'bee'

In closed syllables, vowels in monosyllabic words were lengthened in analogy to the inflected forms:

wec, wege	Weg, Wege /vēk, vēgə/ 'way'

Before r, vowels were often lengthened in monosyllabic words, and i and e were lengthened before r+dental:

dir	dir /dīr/ 'to you'
erde	Erde /ērdə/ 'earth'

Shortening of MHG vowels occurred:

In compound words:

hērlīch	herrlich 'wonderful'

Before consonant clusters:

brāchte	brachte 'brought'

Before -el, -en, -er in the following syllable:

hāmer	Hammer 'hammer'

1.52 Middle High German Structure

The structure of Middle High German was more complex than the structure of New High German. The morphology was gradually simplified and leveled in the intervening centuries.

Strong Verbs:

The MHG strong verbs were divided into seven classes based on their stem vowel alternations (ablaut) inherited

from Indo-European (1.33; 3.133).

In the present indicative, the ich-form had a stem vowel with umlaut in those classes in which umlaut is possible, just as in the du- and er-forms in NHG: MHG geben, ich gibe, du gibest, er gibet. In NHG, the ich-form has the vowel without umlaut in analogy to the plural: ich gebe (3.161).

The MHG simple past indicative distinguished two forms, one for the singular and one for the plural (1.422). Gradually, one of the forms took over the whole paradigm: MHG binden-bant-bunden-gebunden >NHG binden-band-banden-gebunden. Reflexes of this singular-plural distinction still exist in the NHG general subjunctive forms such as sterben: er stürbe (3.163), since the general subjunctive was formed from the plural stem. In NHG, the auxiliary werden still shows two forms: the poetical singular ward and the plural wurden (3.161).

Numerous verbs which were originally strong became weak in NHG, such as pflegen (e Gepflogenheit), rächen, reuen, etc.

Conversely, three verbs which were originally weak became strong in NHG: gleichen, weisen, and preisen, the latter a French loan. This process is extremely rare (3.133).

Weak Verbs:

Some MHG verbs had a different vowel in the present and simple past indicative: hœren-horte. This phenomenon is known by the misnomer Rückumlaut 'unmutation.' The distinction was largely leveled in NHG, except in kennen-kannte, nennen-nannte, rennen-rannte, etc. which were classed as mixed verbs (3.135).

Modal Verbs:

The groups of verbs known in MHG as modals (3.1351) were formed from an original past tense which assumed present tense meaning: können-kann, mögen-mag, müssen-muß, etc. For this reason, they are still inflected in NHG with the inflectional endings of the simple past in their present tense (3.142). A weak past tense was developed later (3.162).

To these modal verbs, MHG wellen, NHG wollen, an original subjunctive form, was added. The verb wissen also belongs to this class, although it does not have the semantic and syntactic characteristics of modal verbs. Technically, these verbs are known as 'preterite-presents' (Präterito-Präsentia).

During the MHG period, further refinements of expression developed through the gradual formation of the compound tenses (3.17) and the passive voice (3.18). The future tense was still fluctuating between an expression with sollen (cf. English 'shall') and werden (3.173), as was the passive voice between the auxiliaries sein and werden (3.18).

Nouns:

In MHG, numerous nouns had fluctuating gender (4.122), and many nouns changed their gender since then:

MHG		NHG	
der	*art, angel, bank, list, mandel, lust, site*	*die*	*Art, Angel, Bank, List, Mandel, Lust, Sitte*
	segel	*das*	*Segel*
das	*honec,*	*der*	*Honig*
	wāfen, wolken	*die*	*Waffe, Wolke*
die	*gürtel, scheitel, schōz, witze*	*der*	*Gürtel, Scheitel, Schoß, Witz*
	āventiure, gewizzen	*das*	*Abenteuer, Gewissen*

Pronouns:

Personal and demonstrative pronouns in OHG distinguished singular and plural by gender. In MHG, the plural distinction is leveled (4.161).

Determiners were used as relative pronouns (5.331), and the genitive singular was lengthened from *des, der* to *dessen, deren* under the influence of the adjective inflection. The same lengthening occurred in the interrogative pronoun *wes-wessen*. Older forms survive in proverbs, such as *Wes Brot ich ess, des Lied ich sing* 'Whose bread I eat, his song I sing.'

Adjectives:

The two-fold adjective inflection (1.34; 4.14ff) was fully developed in MHG. Occasionally, an inflected and uninflected form fluctuated in the nominative singular: *blint man - blinder man*. In the comparative and superlative, some adjectives use morphologically unrelated suppletive stems (4.144), such as *guot-bezzer-best*.

1.53 Middle High German Vocabulary

In each society and each language, the vocabulary reflects the culture of that society. When a part of the culture and society loses its predominance through historical events, its vocabulary changes accordingly.

With the decline of the Classical MHG period, the courtly vocabulary which had been widely used by the poets changed its meaning; some words were lost entirely.

In the courtly culture, *māze, zuht,* and *tugent* were the preeminent principles of life and behavior. The word *māze* (related to *messen, maßhalten*) denoted the ideal of an ethical and moral approach to life; the word was lost and replaced by what may be called *Selbstbeherrschung* 'self-control.' *Zuht* (*ziehen*) has assumed the meaning of strict education and upbringing; the MHG poets understood

it as harmony between inner values and external behavior. In Germanic, tugent meant 'fitness.' Through christianization, it came to mean 'moral virtue,' and during the Crusades it was 'knightly valor.' At the medieval courts, the word also had an aesthetic connotation including good manners and the inner valor of the nobleman.

The word minne was replaced by Liebe.

Frouwe was a lady of noble birth, and wip meant 'woman' in general. With the rise of the middle class, Frau came to mean '(married) woman,' while Weib today is slightly derogatory.

'Courtly behavior' was hövesch, which survives with a different meaning in hübsch 'pretty.' Höflich 'polite' reflects the idea more closely, although we no longer realize it is derived from Hof 'court.'

Through the Crusades and literary contacts, French words entered Middle High German: Old French tornei became MHG turnei 'knightly contest,' pris still survives as Preis 'prize,' and adjectives such as NHG falsch 'false,' fein 'fine,' and klar 'clear' have become part of the German vocabulary.

Verbs borrowed from French at that time and in the following centuries can still be recognized by their stressed final syllable -ieren (3.152), such as MHG loschieren, NHG logieren 'to reside.' Some verbs were formed from Germanic nouns by adding the French syllable: buchstabieren 'to spell,' or hausieren 'to peddle merchandize from house to house.'

The Old French noun-suffix -īe was productive in MHG: vischerīe 'fishery,' and zouberīe 'magic,' and in NHG, the syllable -ei is added to native morphemes Bäckerei 'bakery,' and Liebelei 'flirt.'

The vocabulary of the knightly contest is reflected in numerous idiomatic expressions, such as sich die Sporen verdienen 'to earn one's spurs,' etwas im Schilde führen ('to carry something in one's shield') 'to have something up one's sleeve,' and jemandem den Fehdehandschuh hinwerfen ('to throw the fighting-glove to somebody') 'to challenge someone to a fight.'

The Latin pluralis maiestatis 'the plural of majesty' was introdued via translation of Old French vos to ir (ihr). Young people and the lower class were addressed with du; and ir was used for people to whom honor was due. This custom survived until the beginning of the last century, when the formal address Sie was gradually introduced (4.161).

The influence of Latin continued during the Middle High German period, particularly in the vocabulary of law and learning. The medieval mystics translated many Latin words with native material and infused them with the spirituality of Christianity. They used many prefixes, such as ab-, be-, ein- and the suffixes -heit, -keit, -ung, -nis. The NHG words Abgrund 'abyss,' Einfall 'idea,'

Eindruck 'impression,' Vereinigung 'union,' and Wahrheit 'truth,' and many others were creations of the mystics.

1.6 Early New High German

The period from 1500 to 1700 is essentially characterized by a struggle for a supra-regional standard written language. In other western European countries, a central capital as the seat of government and culture gave rise to a standard language much earlier than in Germany, where various semi-autonomous states used their regional dialects. The long-lasting dominance of Latin as the language of learning delayed the adoption of German as a medium of scholarly writings.

Around the year 1500, chanceries at several regional courts had developed a language for official use (e Kanzleisprache). The most important chanceries were the imperial chancery in Vienna, writing in what was then known as das gemeine Deutsch 'the common German,' and the chancery of the Saxon Electorate in Dresden and Wittenberg, later in Meißen. This chancery language was primarily East Middle German with some Upper German traits. It had originated through the settlers of the Eastern Colonizatin (1.5) whose various High, Middle, and Low German dialects had merged into a language containing many diverse elements. This East Middle German dialect was also influenced by the chancery of Prague, which had already developed a refined and somewhat supra-regional style.

The spelling of Early New High German was very irregular; one of its characteristics is the accumulation of consonants (e Konsonantenhäufung), such as kopff, czijten (Kopf, Zeiten).

Since the invention of printing with movable letters around 1450, printers whose publications initially reflected the dialect of their area later attempted to print in a language which could be understood more widely and thus gain greater distribution of their works.

Of greatest importance for the development and ultimate adoption of a standard language based on East Middle German with Upper German traits was the bible translation of Martin Luther (1483-1546). Although Luther's language was adopted very slowly in various German areas, it became the basis of the German literary language which was used and refined by the great German authors and poets in the following periods (1.7).

1.61 Rise of the Standard Language

Luther grew up in Mansfeld, in the East Middle dialect area which held a position of compromise between the various German dialects. He knew High as well as Low German. His eminence as a reformer and teacher attracted students from all regions to Wittenberg, where he taught.

The public had become increasingly literate, and the demand for his bible was overwhelming, so much so that over 100,000 copies were sold by a printing house in Wittenberg between 1534 and 1584, an enormously high figure for that time.

Luther's German bible translation was by no means the first. There had been 14 translations into High German and four into Low German before Luther's. However, Luther's language was inspiring, and destined his bible translation to be a success and one of the most magnificent literary monuments in the German language.

Previous translations were based on the Latin Vulgate; Luther also drew from Greek and Hebrew sources. Initially, his orthography and grammar were largely based on the chancery practices of the Saxon Electorate. During his life, he constantly worked on his language, so that several periods can be distinguished:

1516-1524: Introduction of the NHG monophthongization, diphthongization (1.51);
upper German apocope and syncope (3.142);
alternations in unstressed syllables: vor-/ver- zur/zer-, -is/-es;
distinction of singular and plural past of strong verbs (sang-sungen) (1.52);

1524-1532: Doubling of consonants after short vowels;
-h- as sign of length after long vowels;
greater consistency in the use of umlaut;
less apocope, but introduction of the unorganic -e (er fande);

1532-1546: Most nouns capitalized;
greater orthographic consistency;
reduction of the use of genitive.

These characteristics can be seen in Luther's early and late translation of Psalm 23. At the same time, the samples below show how hard Luther worked on the effective choice of words and a smooth style.

In the first sample, Luther's own corrections are quoted underlined, and his deletions in parenthesis:

Der herr ist meyn hirtte, myr wirt nichts mangeln. (Er hatt mich lassen) Er leβt mich weyden (ynn der wonung des grases da viel gras steht, und (neeret) furet mich (am) (ans) zum wasser (guter ruge) das mich (erquicket) erkület. Er (keeret widder) erquicket meyne seele, er furet mich auff rechte (m) r (pfad) strasse umb seyns namens willen.

Der HERR ist mein Hirte, Mir wird nichts mangeln. Er weidet mich auf einer grünen Awen, und füret mich zum frischen Wasser. Er erquicket meine Seele, er füret mich auff rechter Straβe, Umb seines Namens willen.

Luther's genius in creating expressions which can be remembered easily is reflected in many idioms he coined in his bible translation which have become part of the standard language such as wie einen Augapfel behüten, einen Denkzettel schreiben, ein Buch mit sieben Siegeln.

The spread and adoption of Luther's bible, and with it the basis of a supra-regional written language, was neither uncontested nor fast. Twenty further translations were made into Low German, the latest of them dated 1621. The Catholic areas did not adopt Luther's bible, but they created their own translations which, however, largely copied or adapted Luther's. A translation of the New Testament by Hieronymus Emser (1527) and a complete bible by Johann Dietenberger (1534, revised 1662) were most widely used in Catholic lands. Reformed Switzerland did not adopt Luther's language until much later.

Indirectly, however, Luther's language spread through German grammar written in Latin by Johann Claius in 1578. Its first edition had the title Grammatica Germanicae Linguae ex bibliis Lutheri Germanicis et aliis eius libris colletca ('Grammar of the German language from the German bible of Luther and from others of his books collected'). The second edition of this influential grammar omitted the reference to Luther, in order to permit distribution in Catholic areas. The eleventh edition appeared as late as 1720.

1.62 Early New High German Syntax

Old High German had consisted primarily of simple clauses which were connected by coordinating conjunctions (5.231). During the Early New High German period, subordination and the position of the finite verb became stabilized and close to modern usage.

The final position of the finite verb in subordinate clauses is of particular interest. It is assumed that translations from Latin and the extensive teaching of Latin caused the preference for positing the finite verb in final position. Luther wrote in 1524: die du erworben hast von alters her, die du erlöset zur ruten deynes erbes. He rewrote the same sentence in 1531 to read: die du von alters erworben und dir zum erbteil erlöset hast. In the same manner, the position of the past participle was fluctuating: Es ist gesagt ynn meynem hertzen von der ubertretung des gottlosen; this was revised later by Luther as Es ist von grund meines hertzens von der Gottlosen wesen gesprochen.

Subordinating conjunctions went through a long development before they assumed modern usage and meaning. The conjunction daß was originally identical with the pronoun, and the orthographic convention which distinguishes pronoun and conjunction only arose during the 16th century (5.22ff).

The conjunction weil was used with a temporal meaning by Luther (cf. English 'while' and the present development of 'since' from temporal to causal usage). For example, dieweil Mose seine Hände emporhielt, siegte Israel.

In OHG, relative pronouns in Latin were rarely translated: ellu thisu redina, wir hiar nu scrībun obana 'The whole speech (which) we have written above.' Frequently a pronoun was included in the main clause and functioned as a relative pronoun: antwurta demo za imo sprah 'answered him (who) spoke to him.' Only after the pronoun moved out of the main clause, and agreed in case with the noun of the subordinate clause, but in gender and number with the main clause, did the relative pronoun assume its modern function (5.331).

Older stages of the German language abound with the genitive case, the use of which is now gradually declining (4.2424). Many predicates had the genitive case as their obligatory complement (3.31ff): thaz thesses brunnen drinkit 'that he drinks of this fountain' (Otfrid, OHG); ich wil im mīnes brōtes geben 'I will give him (some) of my bread' (Hartmann, MHG).

Prepositions which arose from either adverbs (an, bei, durch, etc.), participles (während), nouns (trotz, dank) or comparatives (seit), fluctuated in the cases they required. The use of cases was rather individualistic; and the prepositions requiring either accusative or dative were only fixed during the last few centuries (4.15ff).

1.63 Early New High German Vocabulary

In the Early New High German period, some older words died out: MHG smieren or smielen 'smile' was replaced by lächeln; michel and lützel 'large' and 'small' were supplanted by groß and klein, the latter meaning originally 'fine, dainty.'

The meaning of other words changed, for example man meant 'human being, man;' yet its meaning was narrowed to mean a male human being, while Mensch assumed its earlier connotation. MHG ē meant 'law' and was narrowed to 'legal marriage,' Ehe.

The ENHG vocabulary was vastly increased, on the other hand, by compound words which are typical of the German language. Luther coined numerous descriptive terms, such as Sündenbock 'scapegoat,' Feuertaufe 'baptism by fire,' Hiobspost 'bad news.' The composition of prefixes with verbs was also enlarged, such as weinen-beweinen 'cry-decry,' leugnen-verleugnen 'deny.' Similarly, prefixed and suffixed nouns became more common, such as Heimlichkeit 'secrecy,' and Geheimnis 'secret.'

At a time when the descriptiveness and expressiveness of German were refined in so many ways, influence by foreign languages, foremost among them Latin, also increased. Humanists and the Catholic Church continued to use Latin, as did most universities and scholars. Although the first

university in German lands had been founded in Prague in 1348, followed in rapid sequence by Vienna (1365), Heidelberg (1386), the language of lecture and discussion remained Latin. The first lectures in German were given by Paracelsus in Basel in 1526/27 and by Christian Thomasius in 1687 in Leipzig. The extensive use of Latin resulted in thousands of words pertaining to university life, law, medicine, theology and philosophy of Latin origin entering into German.

In commerce and trade, terms were borrowed from Italian, such as Bank, Kredit, Konto and Risiko. The expansion toward the East brought some Slavic words, such as Grenze 'border,' the earliest known loan word from Slavic; in the 14th century, Peitsche 'whip' was borrowed, and later Halunke 'scoundrel,' Pistole 'pistol,' Quark cottage cheese,' Petschaft 'seal,' and Zobel 'sable.' From Hungarian, a non-Indo-European language, came Dolmetsch 'translator,' Husar 'hussar,' and Kutsche 'coach.' Contact with the Near East brought words such as Alkohol, Atlas, Kaffee, Marzipan and Orange from Arabian and Persian.

While German was strongly influenced by foreign languages, German was also carried into the world by dialects. Pennsylvania German is a dialect still spoken in the United States. It is a curious blend of Rhenish Franconian, spoken by people in the vicinity of Frankfurt-am-Main who emigrated around the 1680s and of English.

Yiddish emerged as a modified form of Middle High German which was spoken by the Jewish population of the Rhenish Palatinate and which assumed many characteristics of the East Middle German dialects. Written in Rabbinical script, the earliest Yiddish writings date from the 14th century. Yiddish was strongly influenced by Hebrew and various Slavic languages, even though it is a German dialect.

During the 1700s, a more or less uniform standard written language had been generally adopted in all German-speaking areas. This literary standard has its roots in Luther's German, which was based on East Middle German, strongly influenced by Upper German.

The adoption of the standard written language based on Luther's German was slow. In Middle Germany, its use was fostered by the prestigious chanceries of Mainz, Regensburg and Speyer and the legal documents printed there (Reichstagsabschiede). Grammarians did not agree on what the best German written language was (1.91). In Switzerland, the new literary language had been generally adopted by 1700; Low Germany also gradually converted to it. However, in Bavaria, long controversies ensued, since Jesuit opposition against the "Lutheran" orthography was strong. The "ketzerische, Lutherische -e", which was lost in Upper German dialects through apocope (3.142) but reintroduced by Luther, was the object of severe controversy. In 1800, however, German was written in that unified language in all regions.

Although the standardization of the German written language was achieved after centuries of struggle, the same does not hold true for German pronunciation; standardization of pronunciation was pursued with less zeal (1.92; 2.ff). In all German areas, local and regional variations of the standard language are common and the influence of the local dialects is strong (1.82).

During the slow process of standardization of German, it continued to be influenced by foreign languages. French was spoken, particularly in the courts and it even vied with Latin as the language of scholarship.

To counteract the foreign influences exerted by Latin as the language of learning and French as the expression of refined living, and in keeping with the awakening national awareness, societies were founded for the purification of the German language and for the refinement of the literary style. The Sprachgesellschaften had prominent members and fostered greater awareness of the literate public for German. The lasting influence lies mainly in the translation of many loan words into German, for example Anschrift instead of Adresse, Bücherei for Bibliothek, Mundart-Dialekt, Grundstein-Fundament, Nachruf-Nekrolog, Gesichtskreis-Horizont and Trauerspiel-Tragödie.

In modern German, a distinction is often made between loan words (s Lehnwort) and foreign words (s Fremdwort). Lehnwörter were borrowed at early stages in the history of German and no longer have foreign stress or spelling, for example Nase and Fenster. Fremdwörter still have foreign stress patterns, spellings, sounds, or morphemes, such as Methode, Vase, Orange, Atlas-Atlanten. Although words such as Doktor and studieren still have foreign stress and were borrowed earlier, the year 1500 for the borrowing gives a convenient but rough distinction between

Lehnwort and Fremdwort. Attempts to avoid or replace Fremdwörter were made until the middle of this century.

1.71 Refinement of the Standard Language

A major part of the credit for having refined the written German language into a rich and flexible means of expression, thought, and feeling must go to the great German writers and poets of the last three hundred years, all of whom had a genuine interest in shaping the language and created words or formulations which enhanced its use. The various 'schools' of thought, such as Baroque, Classic or Realism utilized the dialects and the language of the people in a different manner, drawing from the rich resources of the Volkssprache (1.81) and elevating parts of it to the literary medium.

While the language of the Baroque period between 1600 and 1700 had been quite florid, coining terms such as der Sonne Kammermagd for Mond, Pietism and Enlightenment brought about a reaction, not only against the Baroque language but also against the dogmatic decrees emanating from some grammarians (1.91). The English poet John Milton was advocated as the model of poetic expression, since poetry should be the imitation of nature. A German Milton soon appeared in Friedrich Gottlob Klopstock (1724-1803), whose powerful language in the Messias created an immediate sensation. His fluent style and his creation of words had a lasting influence on German.

Gotthold Ephraim Lessing's (1729-1781) prose style was clear and precise and he developed essays on literature, aesthetics, and history to an elevated medium of expression. As reformer of the German theater, advocating Shakespeare as the model instead of the French dramatists Corneille and Racine, and as a dramatist himself (Minna von Barnhelm, Nathan der Weise), he was deeply concerned with language. He wrote a review of Gottsched's grammar (1.91) and suggested that a dictionary of German dialects be written. Not only interested in the older stages of German and opposed to the indiscriminate use of foreign words, Lessing used many terms which reflected humanitarian ideals either coined from native material or loan translations from English, for example Menschenliebe, Bildung, Denkfreiheit, Weltbürger and Weltgeist.

Johann Gottfried Herder (1744-1803) demanded a return to natural language which was unencumbered by grammar rules. Admonishing the literate public to study its folklore of the past, he collected folksongs from all German dialects and he speculated about the origin of language in poetry.

During the short period of Storm and Stress, the language reflects youthful and unrestrained outbursts as seen in the use of short sentences and omission of parts of speech.

Storm and Stress had no lasting influence on the language, which found its ultimate refinement in the Classical period through Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749-1832) and Friedrich Schiller (1759-1805).

The phrase "edle Einfalt und stille Größe" 'noble simplicity and quite grandeur' had been coined by the archeologist and historian Johann Joachim Winckelmann, when he described the art of Greek antiquity. The quality of noble simplicity and quiet grandeur became the characteristics of the writings of the two greatest poets, as illustrated by the opening stanza of Goethe's Iphigenie:

Heraus in eure Schatten, rege Wipfel
des alten, heil'gen, dichtbelaubten Haines,
wie in der Göttin stilles Heiligtum,
tret' ich noch jetzt mit schauderndem Gefühl,
als wenn ich sie zum ersten Mal beträte,
und es gewöhnt sich nicht mein Geist hierher.
So manches Jahr bewahrt mich hier verborgen
ein hoher Wille, dem ich mich ergebe;
doch immer bin ich, wie im ersten, fremd.

While the style of the classic period is restrained, the Romanticists brought a more emotive expression by seeking affinity between poetry, music and nature. The deep interest in the literary and cultural past and in folklore led to the revival of Middle High German words which had become archaic during the intervening centuries, such as Gau, Fehde, Wonne and Weidwerk. At the same time, the Romantic period coined terms which reflect mystery, for example feenhaft, geheimnisvoll, wunderbar and zauberhaft. The enthusiasm for the Germanic past led to the collection of fairy tales by the Grimm brothers (1.91) and to the editing and commenting of older literary documents, as well as to the beginnings of philology and comparative historical linguistics.

The literature of the 19th century brought the development of prose in novels and novellas as a reflection of the world which surrounds man, with all the problems of the industrial revolution and political unrest in Realism. Naturalism, going even a step further, introduced dialect and substandard language as a means of natural conversation. Gerhart Hauptmann (1862-1946) wrote his drama Die Weber in the Silesian dialect and elevated the language of the people to a literary status. This development continues with the use of Umgangssprache and Volkssprache in some genres of literature (1.81).

Each of the great writers contributed to the enhancement of the language, and because of their stature and the receptiveness of the people desiring to emulate and imitate the great writers' expressions, it is not surprising that the German standard language grew essentially out of the

Schriftsprache. The postulate "Sprich wie du schreibst" is still valid in practice.

1.8 Modern German

Modern German is spoken throughout a large part of central Europe and in various other areas of the world. German is the official language of the two German States: The Federal Republic of German (Bundesrepublik Deutschland), approximately 61,310,000 speakers, and the German Democratic Republic (Deutsche Demokratische Republik), with about 16,756,000 speakers. German is also the official language of Austria (Republik Osterreich) with about 7,508,000 speakers. German, along with French, is one of the two national languages of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg (Großherzogtum Luxemburg), with 356,000 speakers, as well as one of the four national languages of Switzerland (Schweiz), with some 6,337,000 German speakers in addition to speakers of French, Italian, and Rhaeto-Romanic. There are an additional 1,700,000 German speakers in Alsace and Lorraine in France (Elsaß-Lothringen), and approximately 200,000 in South Tyrol (Südtyrol) in northern Italy.

Until 1945, the German speech area in central Europe extended considerably further to the east, into what is now Poland and Czechoslovakia, where there are today still an estimated 1,000,000 German speakers whose number, however, is steadily decreasing. Further German language islands exist in Hungary, Rumania, Russia and Yugoslavia.

Outside Europe, German speakers can be found in all areas of the world, notably in Canada, the United States, Argentinia, Brazil, Australia and South Africa.

German ranks ninth of the most widely spoken languages in the world. Since German is one of the few major languages of science, humanities and art, it is taught extensively at all levels of school and most parts of the world.

German in the 20th century has seen a renewed influx of foreign vocabulary, notably since 1945. Before and during World War II, attempts were made to purify the language in respect to foreign words, particularly by replacing the military terminology of French origin by Germanic terms. Since 1945, the most dominant foreign influence in West Germany has been English and American English, for example: r Babysitter, Job, Trend, e Party. In East Germany, Russian has provided a number of words, either directly or in loan translations, such as r Konsomol, Apparatschik, Aktivist and Praktizismus. Because of the difference in political ideology, some words have taken on a different meaning in East and West Germany. In the Duden published in West Germany (1.92), Blasphemie is defined as "reviling God: insulting remarks about something sacred." The Duden of East Germany defined it as "reviling, insulting remarks

about something of deep significance." In the same manner, the definition of Kapitalismus differs: West: "Individualistic ecomonic and social order whose driving force is the individual's desire to suceed." East: "Economic and social order that rests upon private ownership of means of production and upon exploitation of the worker."

Bureaucracy, technology, science and sports have coined new terms, many of which have become idiomatic. For instance, aufs tote Gleis kommen, an expression from the railroad, means 'to put a train on a dead-end track,' figuratively 'to put something or somebody out of use.' Das Rennen machen 'to win a race' also means 'to succeed.' Medicine has coined such words as r Kreislauf 'circulation' or durchleuchten and röntgen (the latter actually the inventor's name used as verb) 'to X-ray.' From mathematics comes r Durchschnitt 'average, section;' from physics and chemistry such words as luftleerer Raum 'vacuum,' e Sättigung 'saturation' and e optische Täuschung 'optical illusion.'

1.81 Modern Standard German

The German written language, in all areas of its use, is almost completely uniform today, and a reader cannot detect whether a book was written and published in Germany, Austria, or Switzerland. Only certain words may provide an occasional clue, such as Jänner for Januar, the former indicating Austrian usage.

Spoken German, in contrast, exists in a wide variety of different forms, due to the historical dialects (1.4; 1.82). Standard spoken German is based on the Schriftsprache, and it is really a theorectical norm, called e Hochsprache or Hochdeutsch. The latter term is confusing, since historically it meant the Alemannic, Bavarian and Franconian dialects (1.4) as opposed to Low German. Today, Hochdeutsch denotes the standard language, largely free of dialectal traits and close to the written language.

Yet this Hochdeutsch is spoken by only relatively few people. Most German speakers, regardless of their level of education, speak a local or regional variety of standard German which lends a different coloration and accent to their speech. This regional, colloquial language is e Umgangssprache, which differs as to its dialectal traits in various areas. There is no clear dividing line between the Hochsprache and the Umgangssprache, neither between Umgangssprache and local dialect. Many Germans speak their local Umgangssprache to a friend but switch to the Hochsprache, with its local variations, when a stranger comes.

The regional Umgangssprache reflects influences not only from the local and regional dialects, but also from what has been called the Volkssprache, the primarily spoken, earthy, and simple language of daily use. In this style, concrete and often descriptive vocabulary is preferred, differing from area to area, and consisting of

shorter and simpler sentences. From it arises the life of the Umgangssprache. Frequently, the Volkssprache coins rather colorful terms, as illustrated by expressions for schlafen: pennen, ratzen, die Matratze belauschen, sich von innen begucken, wie ein Murmeltier (Bär, Dachs, Sack) schlafen and Augenschondienst machen.

From the Volkssprache also comes popular etymology (e Volksetymologie), which is the speculative association of one word with another word which is etymologically unrelated, for example, radikal becoming ratzenkahl, or instead of MHG sin 'always' using Sünde 'sin' in forming Sündflut for the biblical deluge.

Specialized dialects of professions or social groups (e Sondersprache) also enter readily into the Volkssprache, often into the Umgangssprache, and occasionally into the Hochsprache. From the language of the hunter, for example, in the ENHG period came such terms as naseweis 'saucy, impertinent,' but originally 'pointing with the nose of a hound' or vorlaut 'forward, hasty,' originally of a dog barking before the prey was secured. Auf den Busch klopfen, mit allen Hunden gehetzt sein, or auf falsche Fährte sein are idiomatic expressions from hunting which now have figurative meanings. Many other professional or social Sondersprachen have made contributions to the German language.

This rich and innovative Volkssprache influences the Umgangssprache which, in turn, gives life to the Hochsprache. Because of its growth from the Schriftsprache and its continued affinity to it, the Hochsprache is relatively conservative.

The Hochsprache, in its present form as Gegenwartssprache, is described by Der Große Duden, published by the Bibliographisches Institut in Mannheim. The Duden originated through attempts to unify the spelling of German during the 19th century. In his book Über deutsche Rechtschreibung (1854), Rudolf von Raumer had suggested solutions for the inconsistent orthography, which resulted in a Prussian conference in 1877. Another conference in 1901 was attended by representatives of Austria and Switzerland and produced a manual entitled Amtliches Wörterverzeichnis für die deutsche Rechtschreibung which was adopted by all German-speaking lands. Based on this model, the later editions of Konrad Duden's Rechtschreibung (1880) have become the guidelines for German spelling. Now in its 17th edition, Duden Rechtschreibung der deutschen Sprache und der Fremdwörter is used in West Germany; a new Duden has been published in the German Democratic Republic in recent years.

The volumes of Der Große Duden also contain a grammar: Duden Grammatik der deutschen Gegenwartssprache (3rd. ed., 1973) Volume IV of ten books, in addition to Aussprachewörterbuch, Etymologie and Zweifelsfälle der deutschen Sprache, etc.

A dictionary in six volumes, Das große Wörterbuch der

deutschen Sprache has been published recently (1976-1981).

In addition to the *Duden Ausspracheworterbuch*, *Deutsche Aussprache* is a standard reference for the pronunciation of the *Hochsprache*, particularly for speakers of the media and stage. The *Deutsche Aussprache* is in its 19th revised edition (1971), and it is a modern version of Theodor Siebs' *Deutsche Bühnenaussprache* (1898), which had a great influence on the standardization of the pronunciation of the *Hochsprache*.

To teach German in foreign countries means to teach the *Hochsprache*, free of dialectal characteristics and foreign accents caused by the students' mother tongue (2.ff). The student will only be understood in all areas of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland when speaking the *Hochsprache*. In turn, the foreign student may not immediately understand the local or regional *Umgangssprache* or, even less likely, the dialect. Students must be made aware of this fact, and a brief discussion of dialect distinctions belongs in advanced German classes (1.82).

1.82 Modern German Dialects

The clear delineation of dialect boundaries is very complicated, due to transitional zones linking one dialect with the other.

Dialect studies in the second half of the 20th century are further hampered by the difficulty of assessing what influence the dialects of the refugees after World War II may have exerted on the dialects of the areas in which the refugees settled. Millions of people fled from Pomerania, East Prussia, Silesia, the Sudetenland and other eastern areas. Studies of dialects are in progress, notably through taped recordings compiled by the *Lautbibliothek der deutschen Mundarten* in Münster.

It is also not yet known whether the mass media may, in the long run, have a leveling influence on the dialects.

The following outline sketches only the most important characteristics of modern German dialects, as shown on the map on the following page. Proceeding from northern Germany southward, the following characteristics can be distinguished:

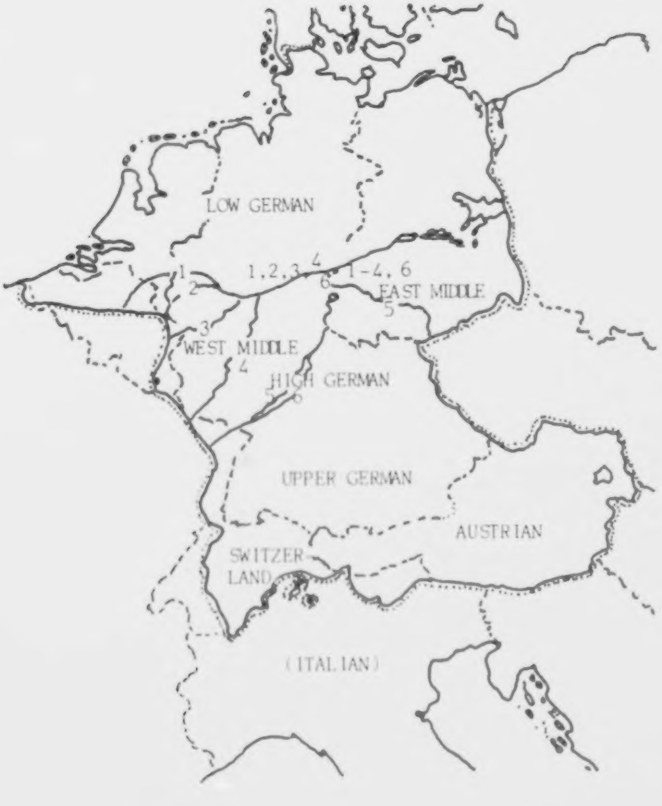
Low German:

The Low German dialects (*Niederdeutsch* or *Plattdeutsch*) have not participated in the OHG consonant shift (1.421) and therefore have the same voiceless stops in the same positions as English: *Pepper*, *open*, *Tide*, *Water* and *maken*. Word-initial <st> and <sp> are pronounced as in English and not as in standard German, /št, šp/: *Stein* /stain/, *Spiel* /spīl/.

In all Low German areas, the NHG dipthongs /ai, au/ appear as monophtongs, /ē, ō/: *Bein* /bēn/, *Baum* /bōm/.

In most Low German areas, the personal pronoun *er* is *he*,

1.82



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and the diminutive is -(e)ke, -(e)ken or -ing: Männeke(n), Döchting.

The southern border of Low German is indicated by line 2 on the map, called the Benrather Linie, after a small town near Düsseldorf. This line extends from Aachen, Köln, Kassel, Magdeburg to Frankfurt an der Oder. (In OHG times, the line must have extended further south and included Berlin, which today belongs to the Middle German dialect area, despite some Low German characteristics, such as ik for ich, or the confusion of the forms of the personal pronoun mir/mich, etc.)

West Middle German:

The western dialects reflect different extents of the OHG consonant shift, which spread with decreasing intensity from south to north. The lines on the map show the "Rhenish Fan" (r Rheinische Fächer), in which each line indicates the border of special dialect characteristics. The dialect between line 2 and 3 is Ripuarian (Ripuarisch around Köln), between line 3 and 4 Moselle Franconian (Moselfränkisch around Trier), followed by Rhenish Franconian (Rheinfränkisch, Hessisch around Frankfurt). Line 5 divides West Middle German from Upper German, and line 6 divides West Middle German from East Middle German.

Line 1 is known as the ik/ich line, indicating that Germanic *k in post-vocalic position shifted up to here. Line 2 is the maken/machen line and the borderline between Low and Middle German, with the exception of ik/ich which reaches further north.

Moselle Franconian and Rhenish Franconian are often grouped together as Middle Franconian (Mittelfränkisch) to distinguish from Ripuarian.

Middle Franconian:

Standard German voiced and voiceless stops (2.31) tend to merge to voiced stops: Platz/blads/ and krank/graŋg/. Standard German /ç/ occurs as /š/: reich/raiš/ and freundlich/frointliš/. Intervocalic /b/ is /v/: aber āvʌ/, and unstressed -en in final position is /ə/: haben/hāvə/. /ā/ occurs as /ō/: Sprache /šprōxə/.

The diminutive -chen is pronounced /šə/: Mädchen medšə/. Typical of Middle Franconian are words of high frequency with unshifted Gmc *t: dat and wat for das and was.

Ripuarian:

In addition to all Middle Franconian characteristics, Ripuarian also has unshifted *p after /l/ and /r/: Dorf /dorp/ and helfen /helpə/.

East Middle German:

Thuringian (Thüringisch around Erfurt), Upper Saxon (Obersächsisch around Dresden) and Silesian (Schlesisch around Oppeln) are the East Middle German dialects. Historically, East Franconian (Ostfränkisch around Bamberg and Würzburg) belongs to East Middle German; it is very similar to Standard German.

Standard German /p, t, k/, and /b, d, g/ are distinct in Silesian, but they merge in Thuringian and Saxon in the same manner as in Middle Franconian. Word-initial pf- occurs as /f/: Pfund /funt/, indicated by line 6. After /m/, Gmc *p remains unshifted: stumpf /stump/.

Standard German /ai, au/ are /ē, ō/, linking East Middle German with Low German: Bein /bēn/ and Baum /bōm/.

The rounded front vowels /ǖ, ȫ/ (2.41) are often unrounded when long: Bühne /bīnə/, böse /bēsə/ and, in Silesian, /ē, ō/ are raised to /ī, ū/: Schnee /šnī/ and so /zū/.

In Thuringian and Saxon, short /e/ occurs as /a/: vergessen /fəgasə/. The Silesian diminutive is -la: Kindlein /kintla/.

Upper German:

The Upper German dialects are divided into Alemannic and Bavarian. Alemannic is further divided into Low Alemannic (Niederalemannisch around Strassbourg), High Alemannic (Hochalemannisch in Switzerland around Bern), and Swabian (Schwäbisch around Stuttgart and Augsburg). Bavarian is spoken in the eastern part of southern Germany and in Austria. This dialect also has numerous subdivisions, but it will suffice to discuss here only Middle Bavarian (Mittelbairisch), the dialect of München.

The following characteristics are common to both Alemannic and Bavarian:

The OHG consonant shift occurred in all positions, and the word-initial affricate (1.421) is preserved in the Low and High Alemannic dialects: Kind /kxint/.

MHG dipthongs were not monophthongized (1.51): lieb /liəp/, Bruder /bruədʌ/ and Brüder /brüədʌ/.

Apocope and syncope are common in both dialects (3.142) and many unstressed syllables therefore have no vowel:

bekommen /bkom/ and gefahren /gfārn/.

Alemannic:

The MHG monophthongs /ī, ū, ǖ/ are preserved (1.51): Zeit /tsīt/, auf /ūf/ and deutsch /dǖtš/.

Before the voiceless spirants /f/ and /s/, a preceding nasal is elided (1.33): fünf /foif/, uns /ois/; in Swabian, the preceding vowel is nasalized Gans /gą̃s/.

The high Alemannic diminutive is -li: Häuslein /hǖsli/; in Low Alemannic and Swabian, it is -le: /hǖslə/.

Bavarian:

The MHG long vowels /ī, ū, ǖ/ occur as diphthongs /ae, ao, ae/: Zeit /tsaet/, Haus /haos/ and Häuser /haezʌ/. MHG /ai/ is /oa/: Leip /loap/.

Before consonant clusters, no umlaut occurred: zurück /zruk/ and Mächte /maxt/ (1.422).

The Bavarian diminutive is -el, or -erl, without umlaut of the stem: Mädchen /mādl, mādʌl/.

1.9 Descriptions of the German Language

Modern German is the present and temporary result of the long historical evolution, development, and refinement which has been briefly outlined in the preceding sections. Since languages constantly change, descriptions of languages have only a limited temporal validity of perhaps some fifty years.

Description of the structure of languages are called 'grammars' (e Grammatik, Sprachlehre), from Greek grammein 'to write.'

The methodology of language descriptions also went through a long development, and linguistic science (e Sprachwissenschaft) is still being refined, constantly bringing new insights into the characteristics of languages.

For the language teacher, the tools of grammatical descriptions of the linguistic structure of languages are necessary. A short survey will outline the development of the description of German.

1.91 Early German Grammars

Observations and descriptions of languages and their properties began in Ancient Greece, although independently, a superb grammar had been written in India in the fourth century B.C. by Panini. The Greeks were only concerned about their own language, calling people of other tongues barbaroi 'babblers,' which later came to mean 'barbarians.'

The Romans, copying the Greek findings and adapting them to Latin, also translated the grammatical terminology, yet not always correctly: 'Accusative' is a mistranslation of Greek ptōsis aitiatiké, and should have been 'the case

of effect' (*effectivus*) instead of 'the case of accusation' (*accusativus*). The Latin grammars by Donatus (400 A.D.) and Priscian (500 A.D.) were used in Germany for the teaching of Latin until the 18th century, and the Greek grammar by Dionysius Thrax (100 B.C.) was used in English schools until the 19th century.

Since the structure of Latin was considered universally valid for languages, all early descriptions of the vernaculars, including even some non-Indo-European languages, were based on these Latin and, ultimately, Greek grammars.

With the gradual introduction of German as the language of chanceries (1.61), the need for guidance in matters of style and orthography grew. Handbooks for chancery clerks and school masters offered models and suggestions for proper style and spelling, noting the incongruity between spoken dialects and the written language.

During his membership in one of the prominent *Sprachgesellschaften*, Martin Opitz (1597-1639) admonished his compatriots -- in Latin -- to use their mother tongue and, since he believed that German was an appropriate medium for poetical expression, wrote his *Buch von der deutschen Poeterey* (1624). Primarily concerned with poetics and style, this work had a considerable impact on the use of German as a literary language. During that time, German instruction was gradually introduced into school curricula that had previously included only Latin.

A widely known and influential grammar was Justus Georg Schottel's *Ausführliche Arbeit von der Teutschen Haubt Sprache* (1663) which was, however, superseded by *Grundlegung einer deutschen Sprachkunst* by Johann Christian Gottsched. This work first appeared in 1748 and went through numerous editions and was translated into various languages. Gottsched was largely responsible for the choice of Upper Saxon as the most acceptable variety of written German.

The most important grammarian before the nineteenth century was Johann Christoph Adelung (1732-1806). His grammar, *Umständliches Lehrgebäude der Deutschen Sprache, zur Erläuterung der deutschen Sprachlehre an Schulen* (1782), was the authoritative source for German poets of the Classical period. Schiller wrote to Goethe in 1804: "*Den Adelung erbitte ich mir, wenn Sie ihn nicht mehr brauchen; ich habe allerlei Fragen an dieses Orakel zu tun.*"

The 19th century is generally considered to be the beginning of the scientific investigation of languages. The discovery of Sanskrit (1.2), made known in Germany by Friedrich Schlegel in 1808, and the enthusiasm of Romanticists for things ancient and natural, led to the discovery and study of the relationships of languages. The reconstruction of Indo-European and Germanic (1.2; 1.3) began at that time and was subsequently refined. The

systematic comparison of languages brought forth comparative historical linguistics which, although today only a part of linguistic science, had the most lasting and fruitful impact on the study of languages.

Jacob Grimm (1785-1863), who with his brother Wilhelm edited the Kinder- und Hausmärchen, wrote the first comparative Germanic grammar, Deutsche Grammatik (1818). He coined numerous terms and definitions still in use today, such as 'umlaut,' 'ablaut,' and 'weak and strong verbs.' In the second edition, Grimm formulated what became known as 'Grimm's Law,' after he had encountered a treatise by the Danish scholar Rasmus Rask of 1811, in which Rask had correctly identified and described the Germanic and Old High German consonant shifts (1.32; 1.421). Grimm's most lasting contribution was the monumental Deutsches Wörterbuch (i.e. Germanic), which was not completed until 1960.

In addition to editing and commenting on documents of the older Germanic dialects, the 19th century scholars wrote numerous grammars which are still indispensible for historical study, such as grammars of Old English, Old Icelandic, etc. However, because they were enthusiastic about the literary and linguistic value of such earlier documents, most of these scholars deplored the inescapable fact of language change and often considered the modern stages as inferior or decayed.

1.92 Descriptions of Modern German

While earlier descriptions of languages had either been prescriptive or historical and used the written languages as their corpus, a great change in the approach to languages occurred at the beginning of this century. Modern schools of linguistics consider the Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure as their common ancestor (1857-1913). In his book Cours de Linguistique générale (published posthumously by his students in 1915), he distinguished between diachronic 'historical' and synchronic 'present' investigations of languages, the latter giving legitimacy to descriptions of languages at a certain point in time. Saussure also distinguished between langue as a social fact and parole as an individual expression.

A group of scholars known as the 'Prague Circle' developed the theoretical basis of the concept of phoneme (2.1). This concept was adopted and refined by American linguists and anthropologists, foremost amoung them Edward Sapir (1884-1939) and Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949), who applied it to the investigating and recording of American Indian languages. Bloomfield's work Language (1933) established structural descriptive linguistics, which describes the formally observable entities of languages in a taxonomical manner but excluding extra-linguistic and semantic concerns, is still an indispensible vademecum for linguists.

Structural linguistics has made a lasting contribution to the description of phonology and morphology, but it has not been as fruitful in syntax. Its impact on language teaching has been considerable.

Leo Weisgerber in his Inhaltbezogene Grammatik focused on semantics and the 'content' of languages, which developed in Germany from 1920 onwards. Weisgerber postulated that German should be investigated on its own and not in terms of Latin. His work had a strong influence on the prestigious Duden Grammatik of 1935, which broke with the Latin tradition to a large extent.

In the isolation Germany experienced during World War II, Hans Glinz had independently developed a method for describing German by formulating discovery procedures which analyze the structure - particularly syntactical relations - without Latin terms and approaches. Glinz' Die innere Form des Deutschen appeared in 1952 and influenced the Duden Grammatik of 1959. Both Glinz' and Weisgerber's influence and some traditional Latin methodology are still evident in the Duden Grammatik of 1973.

The need to study the spoken as well as the written language led to the founding of the Institut für deutsche Sprache (IDS) in Mannheim as a research center and clearing house. Scholars from all over the world contribute to the work of the IDS and, although favoring a structuralist approach, the methodology of analysis is not partial to any particular school of linguistics. Since 1971, publications under the title Heutiges Deutsch: Linguistische und didaktische Beiträge für den deutschen Sprachunterricht as well as Linguistische Grundlagen have appeared periodically in an effort to attain IDS' goal of a complete German grammar.

The counterpart of the IDS in the German Democratic Republic is the Zentralinstitut für Sprachwissenschaft in Berlin. Primarily a research center with little interest in the practice of teaching German, its publications Studia Grammatica (since 1967) reflect the theoretical groundwork of transformational-generative grammar which was developed in 1957 when Noam Chomsky's Syntactic Structures appeared in the US. The basic premise of transformational-generative grammar is that each native speaker intuitively recognizes the grammaticality and well-formedness of each sentence, and that he can generate unlimited new sentences which are grammatically correct. Assuming a distinction between deep and surface representations, basis kernel sentences can be transformed into other sentences by a well-defined set of rules. Sentences are described by a sophisticated set of formulas. The goal is to describe languages completely and to understand characteristics which are universal in all languages. The theory is constantly being revised and refined.

The German reference grammars available today are primarily the Duden Grammatik der deutschen Gegenwartssprache

(1973) and Dora Schulz and Heinz Griesbach's Grammatik der deutschen Sprache (1972). The former is the authoritative source on German and the latter is designed specifically for foreign students of German. More technical works are Wladimir Admomi's Der deutsche Sprachbau (1970), Hennig Brinkmann's Die deutsche Sprache (1971) and Hans Glinz' Deutsche Grammatik (1970ff). German grammars written in English are George Curme's A Grammar of the German Language (1922 and subsequent printings), a thoroughly scholarly work, historically and literarily documented with strongly traditional methodology. The Reference Grammar of the German Language by Herbert Lederer (1969) is based on Schulz-Griesbach.

Of the modern theories and schools of linguistic science mentioned above, only structural linguistics has had any measurable influence on the description of elementary and intermediate German textbooks in America. Structural linguistics has not only influenced instructional methods but also, to some extent, the description of German. Its contribution has been particularly in the introduction of phonological and morphological surveys which describe German in a more concise manner than the paradigms, segmentations and concepts based on Latin.

However, the impact of structural linguistics on the descriptions in textbooks is still uneven; the majority of recent texts still reflect Latin categories and principles, for example by naming and sequencing the gender of German nouns 'masculine-feminine-neuter' (4.121) or the cases 'nominative-genitive-dative-accusative,' approaches which are inappropriate in pedagogical efficiency and which are unrealistic as reflections of usage and frequency.

Evaluative criteria for the linguistic quality of textbooks have yet to be developed. It seems evident that such criteria must be based on the quality and clarity of grammatical descriptions in textbooks (which, on the average, comprise 25% of the textbook volume). The grammatical component is the only finite and constant part of textbooks which is independent of personal taste or cultural variation.

On the other hand, structural linguistics has produced an enormous bibliography on teaching techniques for foreign languages in general and for specific languages. Applied linguistics has become an indispensible resource for the teacher. Many journals are devoted to the improvement of German instruction and to the dissemination of descriptive, analytical, pedagogical, as well as methodological techniques. A few examples of these valuable resources include: Die Unterrichtspraxis and Modern Language Journal published in the US, and Deutsch als Fremdsprache published in Germany.

CHAPTER TWO

2. PHONOLOGY

2.1 Phonemics

All languages have sounds. The speech sounds can be studied and described according to their production and articulation. The science concerned with the identification and description of every feature participating in the production of a given sound in a given language is phonetics (<Greek phone 'sound') (e Phonetik, e Lautlehre). However, since human beings are capable of producing an infinite variety of sounds it is difficult to describe each feature of each sound. Usually the most important and observable features of a sound suffice; for instance, the 'p' in 'pin' is described as a voiceless (the vocal cords do not vibrate), bilabial (the closure occurs with both lips), stop (pronounced by closing the air passage, then releasing the air). A more detailed description could include the amount of muscular energy involved, whether or not the sound is aspirated, how long the closure lasted and whether or not the lips are protruded. Phonetically identified sounds (phones) are given in square brackets: [p].

Whereas phonetics seeks to describe all sounds of all languages, phonemics concentrates on the limited number of sounds unique to one particular language, identifying only those features which distinguish one sound from another in that same language. Phonemics identifies 'p' in 'pin' as a stop which distinguishes it from the spirant 'f' in 'fin,' as voiceless to distinguish it from 'b' in 'bin,' and as bilabial to distinguish it from the dental 't' in 'tin.' Phonemically identified sounds (phonemes) are given between slanted lines /p/.

To arrive at the number and the nature of distinctive phonemes of one language, minimal pairs such as 'pin, tin, kin; pan, tan, can' etc. are identified for each segment. The phonemes so identified constitute the phonemic system of a language.

Phonemes, then, are abstractions of distinctive sound units of a given language. Phonemic analysis usually does not identify individual differences in pronunciations, local varieties, or the modulations caused by rapid speech.

Sounds can differ in certain surroundings. For example, 'p' in 'pin' is slightly aspirated while 'p' in 'spin' is not. However, since this distinction is not contrastive to any other sound in the English language and since the aspirated 'p' occurs in complementary distribution to the unaspirated 'p,' it is simply a variation of a phoneme, called an allophone.

German standard pronunciation is described in Siebs' Deutsche Aussprache and in the Duden Aussprachewörterbuch. These works differ from each other in the tolerance toward regional varieties and in the definition of the norm of

German standard pronunciation.

For the language teacher, the tools of phonetics and phonemics are of special importance. It is one of the goals of foreign language classes to teach German as free of American accent as possible, so that the student can be easily understood by German speakers. The teacher of German, therefore, must know how English and German sounds differ and what sounds are difficult for the English speaker to pronounce. By analyzing the articulation of the difficult sound, instructing the student how to adjust his vocal tract, providing constrastive drills and, finally, by giving drills that practice control of the sound, the teacher can help students to achieve good German pronunciation.[1]

2.2 Transcriptions

The ideal orthography of a language would be a system in which each phoneme is consistently represented by a symbol. The Latin alphabet, adapted for most western Indo-European languages and some non-Indo-European languages, often does not reflect the phonemic inventory adequately. German has 23 consonant phonemes, for instance; the Latin alphabet has 26 symbols, of which five are vowels. For this reason, digraphs, such as <pf, ck>, are employed. Furthermore, due to the conservatism of writing systems, most spellings are inconsistent and differ in their graphemic representations (2.6) in various degrees from the phonemic system. In comparison to English, however, German spelling reflects its phonemic system remarkably well. Nevertheless, it is frequently necessary to transcribe the phonemes in a more consistent manner.

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was designed to allow a transcription of the sounds of languages in a consistent manner, and it is used in some textbooks, handbooks, and most dictionaries. The standard work on German pronunciation, Siebs' Deutsche Aussprache (1.81), has a system slightly different from the IPA, as do some dictionaries. Any transcription will serve the purpose, as long as it is easy to learn, descriptively adequate and used consistently.

In order to maintain a close correspondence to the familiar letters of the alphabet and to permit the use of transcriptions in the classroom without much technical discussion, the IPA is adapted here with slight simplifications.

A phonemic and broad transcription usually suffices for a constrastive description of the consonant phonemes of English and German.

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[1] Since it is impossible to improve on the superb discussion of THE SOUNDS OF ENGLISH AND GERMAN by William G. Moulton (Chicago, 1962), this presentation borrows numerous examples, follows its outline, and owes a great deal to it.

2.2

The following symbols are employed:

CONSONANTS						
SYMBOL	ENGLISH EXAMPLES			GERMAN EXAMPLES		
/p/	pail	tapping	rip	passe	Raupen	reib
/b/	bail	tabbing	rib	Baß	rauben	
/t/	tail	latter	writ	Tasse	baten	riet
/d/	dale	ladder	rid	das	baden	
/k/	kale	backing	pick	Kasse	Haken	Sieg
/g/	gale	bagging	pig	Gasse	Hagen	
/f/	fail	leafing	leaf	fasse	Höfe	rief
/v/	veil	leaving	leave	was	Löwe	
/θ/	thigh	ether	loath			
/ð/	thy	either	loathe			
/s/	seal	racer	rice	Satin	reißen	Reis
/z/	zeal	razor	rise	Satz	reisen	
/š/	shale	Asher	rush	Schatz	rauschen	Rausch
/ž/		azure	rouge	Genie	Rage	
/ç/				China	reichen	reich
/x/					rauchen	Rauch
/m/	mail	simmer	ram	Masse	hemmen	Kamm
/n/	nail	sinner	ran	nasse	Hennen	rann
/ŋ/		singer	rang		hängen	rang
/l/	lane	miller	tile	lasse	Kohle	will
/r/	rain	mirror	tire	Rasse	bohre	wirr
/j/	Yale	beyond		Jacke	Koje	
/w/	wail	away				
/h/	hail	behave		hasse		
VOWELS						
/ī/	beat			bieten		
/i/	bit			bitten		
/ǖ/				Güte		
/ü/				Mütter		
/ē/	bait			beten		
/e/	bet			Betten		

/ȫ/		Goethe
/ö/		Götter
/æ/	bat	
/ā/		rate
/a/	pot	Ratte
/ɔ/	bought	
/ō/	boat	rote
/o/		Rotte
/ū/	boot	Rute
/u/	put	Kutte
/ʌ/	but	
/ɜ/	earth	
/ai/	bite	leite
/oi/	loin	Leute, läute
/au/	bout	Laute
/ə/	only in unstressed syllables:	
	sofa	begegnen

Symbols which distinguish phonetic or allophonic values are:

Syllabicity: [i̥]
Energy:
tense [i]
lax [ɩ]

Length: long [ī]
half-long [iˑ]
short [i]

German and English unstressed '-er' are rendered as [ʌ] when non-syllabic, as [ʌ̥] when syllabic. (2.332)

Stress marks are:

Primary stress ' : Sonne /'zonə/
Secondary stress ,: Sonnenschein /'zonən, šain/

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2.3 Consonants

Consonants (<Latin *con*+*sonare* 'with+sound') (*r Konsonant*, *r Mitlaut*) are produced by some degree of hindrance of the breath stream and are classified according to their articulation.

2.31 Description of Consonants

Articulators:

- (1) lower lip (Lat *labia*)
- (2) tip of the tongue (apex)
- (3) top of the tongue (dorsum)
- (4) vocal cords (glottis)

Places of Articulation:

- (5) upper lip
- (6) upper teeth (Lat *dens*)
- (7) alveolar ridge
- (8) palate
- (9) velum
- (10) uvula
- (11) oral cavity
- (12) nasal cavity
- (13) pharynx
- (14) larynx

Positions of Articulation:

bilabial (1)+(5)	/p/ in 'pin'
labio-dental (2)+(6)	/f/ in 'fin'
apico-dental (2)+(6)	/θ/ in 'thin'
apico-alveolar (2)+(7)	/t/ in 'tin'
dorso-alveolar (3)+(7)	/s/ in 'sin'
dorso-palatal (3)+(8)	/ç/ in German *ich*
dorso-velar (3)+(9)	/k/ in 'look'
dorso-uvular (3)+(10)	/r/ in German *rot*

Manner of Articulation:

Consonants are articulated with some hindrance of the breath stream at certain places in the vocal tract:

stops (occlusives, plosives) (*Verschlußlaute*)	/p,t,k/
spirants (fricatives) (*Reibelaute*)	/f,v,s/
nasals (*Nasenlaute*)	/m,n,ŋ/
laterals (*Seitenlaute*)	/l/

trills (Schwinglaute)	German /r/

For practical reasons, some of these classes of sounds are often further classified:

affricates (=stops + spirants) (Affrikaten)	German /pf, ts/
sibilants (= a type of spirant) (Zischlaute)	/s, z, š/
liquids (Liquide)	/l,r/

Vibration of Vocal Cords:

voiced (stimmhaft) (vibration)	/b,d,g,v,z/
voiceless (stimmlos) (no vibration)	/p,t,k,f,s/

Energy:

tense similar to (fortis)	/p,t,k,f,s/
lax similar to (lenis)	/b,d,g,v,z/

Syllabic Function:

syllabic (syllabisch)	/m̩/ in Atem /ātm̩/
non-syllabic (unsyllabisch)	/m/ in atmen /ātmən/

Coarticulation:

aspiration (Behauchung)	/p/ in 'pin'
lip rounding (Lippenrundung)	German /š/

2.32 German and English Consonant Systems

Based on the consonant symbols in 2.2, it is obvious that English and German share a majority of consonants, although not all.

Minimal pairs such as those given in 2.2 enable us to establish the consonant systems of English and German phonemically (2.1) and to arrange them according to the place and manner of articulation.

Since the consonants of English and German will be compared for pedagogical purposes, the phonemes of German which differ from the English phonemes are marked:

(1) English phonemes in square solid boxes have no equivalents in German (2.33).
(2) German phonemes in square solid boxes have no equivalent in English (2.331).
(3) Phonemes which differ in their pronunciation in English and in German are marked with a solid circle (2.332).
(4) Phonemes which differ slightly in the two languages and exist as allophones in English are marked with a dotted circle (2.333).

2.32

ENGLISH CONSONANT PHONEMES

	LABIAL vl	LABIAL vd	DENTAL vl	DENTAL vd	PALATAL vl	PALATAL vd	VELAR vl	VELAR vd	GLOTTAL vl	GLOTTAL vd
STOPS	p	b	t	d			k	g		
SPIRANTS	f	v	θ	ð	□	j	□		h	
SIBILANTS			s	z	š	ž				
NASALS		m		n				ŋ		
LIQUIDS				l r						
SEMI-VOWEL		w								

GERMAN CONSONANT PHONEMES

	LABIAL vl	LABIAL vd	DENTAL vl	DENTAL vd	PALATAL vl	PALATAL vd	VELAR vl	VELAR vd	GLOTTAL vl	GLOTTAL vd
STOPS	p	b	t	d			k	g		
SPIRANTS	f	v	⬚	⬚	ç	j	x		h	
SIBILANTS			s	z	š	ž				
NASAL		m		n				ŋ		
LIQUIDS				l r						
SEMI-VOWEL		⬚						ị		

2.33 English-German Conflicts

Some areas of conflict exist between German and English, as we can see upon examination of consonant-phoneme systems of the two languages (2.32). These conflicts cause difficulties for the learner of German or, conversely, for the German learner of English. In addition to linguistic reasons for these conflicts, which will be discussed in detail in 2.331-2.334, extra-linguistic factors magnify the difficulties of achieving good pronunciation.

Students generally are too old to learn a foreign language in high school or in college. The optimum age for acquiring foreign languages with ease, parallel to the experiences of children's first language acquisitions, is between 3 and, at the latest, 10 to 12 years of age. After the age of twelve, the mother tongue has become the natural expression of the world and its habits are deeply ingrained. Although older students may be intellectually willing to learn a second language, psychologically this learning represents a formidable task, since every sound in English seems to them normal and sounds which differ seem abnormal or silly.

Because of the thousands of hours spent in the practice of English, the muscular control involved in the pronunciation of English sounds has become so habitual that the different type of muscular control which must be mastered to pronounce the new phonemes of German is difficult to achieve. Similarly, the capacity of auditory discrimination between familiar and strange sounds is also conditioned in terms of English, so that the student, when hearing an unfamiliar sound, substitutes a familiar sound which seems similar. To minimize psychological inhibition and to practice physiological muscle control in the production of unfamiliar sounds, choral repetion of sounds and minimal pairs should precede individual student recitals.

Another habit which has to be broken when an adult student learns a foreign language is the association of the written symbols with the sound of English. For instance, when students read German for the first time, they will ignore the dots over the <ü> and <ö> and substitute the German sound with a familiar /u/ and /o/. To avoid the interference of the orthography, many textbooks first give the phonology in oral practice before the written word is encountered.

The phonological conflicts arising from familiarity with English pronunciation can be classified into four categories:

Phonemic conflicts which comprise such sounds as German /ç/ and /x/ are strange and new to the English speaker. These problems appear in 2.31 in solid boxes and will be discussed in 2.331.

Phonetic conflicts exist, and are caused by the substitution of an unfamiliar phone by a familiar one, such as using the English dark [l] instead of German clear [l]. Such problems are visible in 2.31 in solid circles and will be discussed in 2.332.

Allophonic conflicts arising from the use of an English allophone, such as [š] with spread lips instead of German [š] with rounded lips. (Dotted circles) (2.333).

Distributional conflicts involve familiar sounds in unfamiliar surroundings, especially consonant clusters. English has the combination of [ts] in word-final position, but not initially as German /ts/ in Zeit[1] (2.334).

To help the students conquer such conflicts, the teacher must be aware of the techniques outlined below. He must know the phonetic and articulatory nature of the unfamiliar sounds and explain the articulation in simple terms. The teacher also must be able to construct drills of contrasting words which teach auditory discrimination of familiar and unfamiliar sounds and facilitate practice of the muscle control required for the articulation of new sounds. Further drills to avoid substitutions for the new sound by a familiar English sound must also be given.

The following paragraphs will provide suggestions on these techniques.

2.331 Phonemic Conflicts /ç/ and /x/

The English phonemes given in dotted square boxes in 2.31 have no equivalents in German and therefore constitute problems for the native German speaker who learns English. Typical of a German accent in English (among other characteristics, 2.334; 2.53) is the substitution of /s/, /t/, or /f/ for /θ/ and /ð/ so that instead of 'thin,' words such as 'sin,' 'tin,' or 'fin' are substituted, resulting in impeded comprehension. In the same manner, Germans often substitute English /w/ with German /v/, so that [vintʌ] results instead of /wintʌ/.

Conversely, English speakers learning German only need to be warned to avoid the familiar phonemes /θ/, /ð/ and /w/ when speaking German. This process of elimination is usually relatively simple once students are told that <th> is always spoken as /t/ and occurs mainly in names (Thomas, Goethe) and in foreign words (Theater, Methode), and that <w> always represents German /v/.

However, conflicts arise when students must learn new phonemes which do not exist in English, such as German /ç/ and /x/, which combine the feature of manner of articula-

1 /ts/ and /pf/ are phonemes in German but were omitted for practical reasons from the chart in 2.31 and will be discussed under distributional conflicts (2.334) with other consonant clusters, as will be the English affricate-phonemes /tš/ and /dž/.

tion 'spirant' with place of articulation 'dorso-palatal' and 'dorso-velar' respectively.

German /ç/:

The so-called German ich-sound occurs only after front vowels /i, ü, e, ö, aī, oi/ (2.41) and after /l, r, n/. It is a voiceless dorso-palatal spirant, articulated by forcing the breathstream through a slit-shaped opening between the front of the tongue and the hard palate. The phoneme most closely related to /ç/ is the voiceless alveolo-palatal sibilant /š/. For /ç/, the opening between the tongue and the palate is a shallow slit, for /š/ it is a deep groove. The voiced counterpart of /ç/ is /j/.

To teach German /ç/, the English words 'hue, hew, Hugh' /hjū/ and 'huge' /hjudž/ can be utilized. The pronunciation of these words by many English speakers closely approximates German /ç/, particularly when the initial sound is somewhat exaggerated to produce greater friction.

Once students have learned to perceive and imitate /ç/, drills for articular control are needed. First, nonsense syllables such as /içi, eçi, aiçi; içu, eçu, aiçu/ are helpful. Then, German words can be practiced, initially only with the unrounded front vowels /i/ and /e/, later adding words containing /ü/ and /ö/, which are also new phonemes (2.433), for example:

riechen, brechen, reichen, Seuche, Bücher and höchst.

/ç/ also occurs after the liquids /r/ and /l/ and the nasal /n/. The diminutive suffix -chen also can be added to words ending with back vowels, /r, l, n, m/ and voiceless consonants:

Furcht, Milch, München, Mönche, Frauchen, Mädchen and Höfchen

Before and after sibilants, students often find /ç/ difficult to pronounce. The inclusion of an /i/ makes the transition in practice easier, such as riechst /rīçst/ first pronounced as /rīçist/: Tischchen, bißchen, Häuschen, kriechst and kreuchst.

To avoid substitution of /ç/ with a familiar English phoneme, contrastive drills teach discrimination and control. Since /š/ and /k/ are phonetically related sounds, the contrast must be practiced:

/k/ –	/ç/	/š/ –	/ç/	/š/ –	/ç/
Sieg	siech	Löscher	Löcher	Menschen	Männchen
nickt	nicht	fischt	ficht	fälschen	Fellchen
Streik	streicht	keusche	keuche	seelisch	selig

Proverbs and idioms are enjoyable for the practice of sounds, for example:

Schlecht und recht. Andre Städtchen, andre Mädchen.
Ob arm, ob reich, vorm Tode gleich. Es fällt keine Eiche

beim ersten Streiche. Gleich und gleich gesellt sich gern. Jeder ist sich selbst der Nächste.

German /x/:

The phoneme /x/, called ach-sound, is a voiceless dorso-palatal spirant, articulated by forcing the air stream through a slit formed by the back of the tongue and the middle of the velum. It occurs only after the back vowels, /ū, u, ō, o, ā, a, au/. The sound most closely related to /x/ is /k/, produced by making a complete stop between tongue and velum. /x/ has no voice counterpart.

Students learn to articulate /x/, usually without problems, by producing a strongly aspirated [k^h].

Drills for control begin with nonsense syllables such as /ux, ox, ax, aux/, followed by words such as Buch, Bucht, hoch, Koch, nach, Bach and Bauch.

Contrastive drills to avoid substitution of /x/ with /k/ or /š/ and to contrast /x/ and /ç/ have the following form:

/k/ -	/x/	/š/ -	/x/	/x/ -	/ç/
buk	Buch	kuschen	Kuchen	Tuch	Tücher
Dock	doch	Brosche	lochen	Loch	Löcher
nackt	Nacht	rausche	rauchen	Nacht	Nächte

Idioms and proverbs containing /x/ include:

Mit Ach und Krach; Nacht für Nacht; Von Woche zu Woche; Nach altem Brauch; Nach und nach; Noch und noch; and Erst bedacht, dann gemacht.

Examples which illustrate the contrast between /x/ and /ç/ include:

Wichtigmacher, Richtspruch, Blechdach, Kirchendach, Nichtachtung, Nachricht, Nachtwächter, Nachsicht; Das Buch der Bücher, Reichtum und Pracht verfällt über Nacht, Eichen soll man weichen, Buchen soll man suchen, and Macht ist Verflichtung.

2.332 Phonetic Conflicts /r/, /l/

Phonetic conflicts are caused by the substitution of an English phoneme for a German phoneme which functions in the same manner in both languages, but which is phonetically different. Phonetic mistakes partially cause an American accent in German, for instance when English /l/ and /r/ are used. Such mistakes will not lead to misunderstandings by creating new words, as phonemic mistakes will do (e.g., Löcher-Löscher and nackt-Nacht), but they will sound strange and, sometimes, even ridiculous.

German /l/:

German /l/ is a lateral consonant, articulated by placing the tip of the tongue above the upper teeth or at the

alveolar ridge. The breathstream flows along the sides of the relatively flat tongue. In contrast, English [ɫ] is pronounced in the same manner, but adds the additional feature of humping the tongue towards the back of the velum. German /l/ is clear and the tongue is flat and tense; English [ɫ] is dark and the tongue is retracted and relaxed.

Many English speakers have allophones [ɫ]. English [ɫ] is often clear in word-initial position or between front vowels: 'leap' /līp/ and 'million' /miljən/. In word-final position, English [ɫ] is usually darker. To point out the difference between velar and non-velar pronunciation and to practice the omission of velarization, constrastive drills are helpful:

ENGLISH [ɫ]	GERMAN /l/	ENGLISH [ɫ]	GERMAN /l/
feel	viel	stool	Stuhl
fail	fehl	pole	Pol

Many idioms and proverbs use /l/ in alliteration (1.31):

Leib und Leben; Land und Leute; Lust und Leid; Es liegt was in der Luft; Verlorene Liebesmüh. Glück und Glas, wie leicht bricht das. Man ißt, um zu leben, man lebt nicht, um zu essen, and Kleider machen Leute.

German /r/:

The German phoneme /r/ has two main varieties of which one, the uvular [R], is used by the majority of German speakers. The other, apical [ř], is less common, although both are acceptable.

Uvular [R] is articulated by raising the back of the tongue toward the uvula and the back of the velum, so that a slit-shaped opening is formed, through which the breath stream is forced. The stream may or may not cause the uvula to vibrate against the back of the tongue. The phoneme closely related to uvular [R] is the voiceless dorso-velar spirant /x/, but [R] is voiced and further in the back of the velum.

Apical [ř] is produced by bringing the tip of the tongue into contact with the alveolar ridge, either very quickly to produce a flap or several times to produce a trill. The closest phoneme is the voiced apico-alveolar stop /d/ which, however, has a longer and wider contact between the tip of the tongue and the alveolar ridge.

Depending on their abilities, students can learn to use either the uvular [R] (s Zäpfchen-r) or the apical [ř] (s Zungenspitzen-r), but it should be noted that the former is substantially more frequent.

Uvular [R] can be taught by instructing students to gargle without water, since gargling forces the breath stream between the uvula and the back of the velum, causing the velum to vibrate and produce the desired sound.

The first step in practicing uvular [R] is to begin with nonsense syllables containing the low back vowel /ā/, such as [Rā], [āRā] and [āR], since the lowness of the tongue required for the articulation of /ā/ minimizes the temptation to raise the tongue to produce the familiar American /r/. After the sound can be controlled, syllables containing other vowels can be practiced, followed by words such as Ratten, Rotten, Russen, retten, rieten, röten, Sprache, Sprosse, Spruch, sprechen, sprießen, Sprüche, spreizen and Spreu.

To strenghten the control, contrastive drills practicing the difference between American /r/ and German [R] should follow:

ENGLISH /r/	GERMAN [R]	ENGLISH /r/	GERMAN [R]
reef	rief	creak	Krieg
rest	Rest	fry	frei
wrote	rot	dry	drei
rice	Reis	price	Preis

To teach students apical [ř], they can be reminded that the intervocalic allophone of /t/ in words such as 'Betty' and 'city' is pronounced as a flap of the tip of the tongue at the alveolar ridge. By making several such flaps in rapid succession, the apical trill [ř] results. The same examples as above can be used for practice.

The two allophones of /r/ are used as described above only in prevocalic position. In postvocalic position after long, short, or unstressed vowels, further allophones exist which are essentially reductions.

After long vowels, /r/ is pronounced as a non-syllabic, unrounded, central-to-back vowel (2.41), similar to the vowel in English 'but' /bʌt/. The symbol [ʌ] will be used to indicate this postvocalic allophone of /r/ which alternates with prevocalic [R] or [ř]: führe-führt-für /fūRə/-/fūʌt/-/fūʌ/.

After short vowels, [R], [ř], and [ʌ] alternate with one another, so that irrt is spoken either [iRt], [iřt], or [iʌt]. In particular, the uvular variety is often misunderstood as velar [ɫ], and Americans hear wird [viRt] as a mispronounced wild [viɫt].

The unstressed syllable -er is pronounced as syllabic [ʌ̥] when word-final or before a consonant: besser, bessert [besʌ̥], [besʌ̥t]; if it is followed by a vowel, it alternates with [əR] and [əř]: bessere [besəRə] or [besəřə].

Postvocalic [ʌ] and [ʌ̥] are perceived by English speakers in unstressed syllables as non-syllabic, e.g., 'sofa' [sofʌ], and syllabic in 'father' [fāθʌ̥]. These sounds can be used in German.

In order to avoid substitution for German uvular [R] with English velar [ɫ] after short vowels, constrastive minimal pairs teach discrimination:

ENGLISH [ɫ]	GERMAN [R]	GERMAN /l/	GERMAN [R]
wilt	wird	Zelt	zerrt

spelt	sperrt	kalte	Karte
malt	Mord	schwillt	schwirrt

Contrastive drills are used to practice the alternation between syllabic [ʌ̩] and non-syllabic [ʌ]:

non-syllabic [ʌ]		syllabic [ʌ̩]	
here	hier	bitter	bitter
air	er	miller	Müller
tour	Tour	sister	Schwester
ore	Ohr	mother	Mutter
par	Paar	father	Vater

A further drill to practice the automatic alternation of [R] or [ř] in prevocalic position with [ʌ] or [ʌ̩] in postvocalic position contrasts inflected forms:

[R] or [ř]	- [ʌ]	[R] or [ř]	- [ʌ̩]
Tiere	Tier	bittere	bitter
Türen	Tür	irre	irrt
Speere	Speer	ändere	ändert
Öhre	Öhr	dörre	dörrt
Uhren	Uhr	murre	murrt
Tore	Tor	schnorre	schnorrt
Waren	wahr	harre	harrt

In addition, the following idioms and proverbs can be used:

Roß und Reiter, Arm in Arm, Klirrender Frost, Brot brechen. Vom Regen in die Traufe. Die Rechnung ohne Wirt machen. Rasten heißt rosten. Probieren geht über studieren. Besser eigenes Brot als fremden Braten, and Hoffen und Harren macht manchen zum Narren.

2.333 Allophonic Conflict: /š/; /p,t,k/; Medial /t/

Allophonic conflicts between English and German arise from the existence of various allophones in an English phoneme, one of which is identical to the German phoneme, and the others are not.

German /š/:

German /š/ is always pronounced with rounded lips; English /š/ may (as in 'shoe' /šū/) or may not (as in 'she' /šī/) be pronounced with rounded lips. German /š/ is articulated with a deep groove in the tongue; in English, the groove varies from a shallow groove which, together with lip-rounding, creates a sound closer to German /ç/ than to German /š/, and a deeper groove. Students must learn to control the varieties of English /š/ and use only one allophone in German. Drills contrasting English and German /š/ are helpful:

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ENGLISH /š/	GERMAN /š/	ENGLISH /š/	GERMAN /š/
she	Schi	session	dreschen
sheer	schier	nation	naschen
fish	Fisch	ashes	Asche
shoe	Schuh	rushing	raschen

Drills using idioms and proverbs can also be used:

Mit Schimpf und Schande, Schlag auf Schlag. Wenn schon - denn schon, Über Stock und Stein. Weder Fisch noch Frosch. Jemandem die Schuld in die Schuhe schieben, Steter Tropfen höhlt den Stein and Von groben Stämmen haut man grobe Späne.

German /p,t,k/:

English and German have identical pronunciations for the voiceless stops /p,t,k/ in word-initial position, whether or not the syllable is stressed (pass-Paß, paráde-Paráde), and medially at the beginning of stressed syllables. In such instances, the stops are aspirated.

However, medially before an unstressed vowel or word-finally, the English stops are usually unaspirated and often, in final position, unreleased. In German, stops are released in all positions. Therefore, medial and final /p,t,k/ must be practiced in order to achieve a pronunciation with more energy:

ENGLISH /p,t,k/	GERMAN /p,t,k/	/p,t,k/	/p,t,k/
helper	Tulpe	reap	lieb
pity	bitte	lop	Lob
county	konnte	loot	lud
inky	sinke	seek	Sieg

Medial /t/:

Another allophonic problem arises from the English allophone of /t/ in medial position before an unstressed vowel. Many Americans pronounce that /t/ very close to a /d/, and have no distinction between words such as 'kitty-kiddy,' 'catty-caddy,' 'hearty-hardy,' etc. Students must be made aware of this allophone and be instructed not to transfer it into German. This allophone occurs either after vowels or after /l/ and /r/. If /t/ follows /n/, many American speakers in rapid speech do not even pronounce a stop, so that 'winter' and 'winner' become identical. Drills such as the following are helpful in avoiding the transfer of this habit into German:

pity-bitte	winter-Winter
salty-sollte	painter-lehnte
parted-wartet	county-konnte

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2.334 Distributional Conflicts: Clusters

Distributional conflicts do not involve new sounds or their variations, but familiar sounds in unfamiliar combinations or surroundings. Such conflicts primarily involve consonant clusters in word-initial position and voiced-voiceless alternations.

Clusters:

Unusual foreign clusters, such as in Ptolomäus, Szene and Pneu /ptolomēus, stsēnə, pnoi/ are not considered here.

Velar stops + [n]= [kn], [gn]:

Although in English orthography words occur with the clusters <kn, gn>, the initial stop is not pronounced. In German, it is, and students who have had years of training to ignore the stop, must now learn to pronounce it. They often pronounce Knie and Gnade as /kənī/ and gənādə/, inserting a /ə/ between the consonants. Some practice is required to achieve the proper pronunciation: Knirps, Knüppel, Knebel, Knöpfe, Knute, Knoten, Knabe, kneifen, Knäuel, Knauf; Gnom, Gnu, Gnade and Gneis.

Voiceless velar stop +[v] = [kv]:

This combination, rendered in both languages by <qu>, is really not difficult, since students only need to be aware that German has no English /w/, and that <w> represents /v/ for example: Qualität ist besser als Quantität. Wo es qualmt, da ist auch Feuer. Wer die Wahl hat, hat die Qual.

Sibilants + stops = [št] and [šp]:

German has the combination of /s/ plus a voiceless stop in many foreign words, for example Spleen /splīn/, Stop /stop/ and Skandal /skandāl/. However, in German words, the combination of sibiliant + /t/ or /p/ is pronounced in word initial position as [št] or [šp]. Because of the interference from English, such combinations require some practice:

ENGLISH [st]	GERMAN [št]	ENGLISH [sp]	GERMAN [šp]
still	still	spiel	Spiel
stain	stehen	speck	Speck
stool	Stuhl	spool	Spule
stole	gestohlen	sport	Sport
stark	stark	sparse	sparst

Stops + spirants = /pf/ and /ts/:

The affricates (1.421; 2.31) /pf/ and /ts/ are phonemes in German and were omitted in 2.31 for practical reasons.

/pf/ is difficult for American students, although they do pronounce the combination in two words, as in 'stop fighting.' Some practice is needed:

2.334

/f/	/pf/	ENGLISH /p/	GERMAN /pf/
finden	empfinden	apple	Apfel
fühle	Pfühle	plant	Pflanze
fehlen	empfehlen	rump	Rumpf
Fund	Pfund	pole	Pfahl
fort	Pforte	prop	Pfropfen
fangen	empfangen	plight	Pflicht
feil	Pfeil	top	Topf

Additional examples include:

Pfingstfest, Pflegevater, Pfauenfeder, verpflanzen and Pfadfinder.

/ts/ is complicated, not only because the orthography renders it as <z> and students will read Zeit as /zait/ instead of /tsait/, but also because it occurs in a different distribution than in English, where it only exists word-finally: 'sits,' and 'wits.' To practice the pronunciation of /ts/ in word-initial and medial position, cognates are used (1.421).

ENGLISH /t/	GERMAN /ts/
tin	Zinn
wits	Witze
town	Zaun
heart	Herz
melt	schmelzen

The fact that German /ts/ is phonemic must be pointed out in contrast to /s/ and /t/:

/ts/	/s/	/t/
ritzen	rissen	ritten
schützen	Schüssen	schütten
netze	Nässe	nette
ergötzen	ergössen	vergöttern
trotzen	Trossen	trotten
Hatz	Haß	hat

Examples with proverbs and idioms include the following:

Herzzerreißend, Weisheitszahn, Satzzeichen, Holzzaun, Von Zeit zu Zeit, Zahn um Zahn, Zittern und Zagen, Ziel und Zweck, Die Zunge im Zaum halten, Den Kürzeren ziehen. Die Katze im Sack kaufen. Alles zu seiner Zeit and Quäle nie ein Tier zum Scherz, denn es fühlt wie du den Schmerz.

English has two affricate phonemes which are transcribed as /tš/ and /dž/, or /č/ and /ǰ/, respectively. They also occur as clusters in German, although [dž] is quite rare: Dschunke and Dschungel. [tš] is pronounced the same in English and German:

Kitsch, Kutsche, klatschen, Quatsch, Matsch, Putsch and deutsch.

Voiced-Voiceless Alternations:

The second type of distributional conflict which the student of German encounters concerns the automatic alternations between voiced and voiceless stops and spirants in certain positions. The pairs of consonants involved are

voiced:	/b/	/d/	/g/	/v/	/z/
voiceless:	/p/	/t/	/k/	/f/	/s/

Such alternations are familiar to the English speaker, since English has a similar phenomenon in /f/ and /v/: 'leaf-leaves,' and 'wife-wives.'

In German, voiced consonants do not occur at the end of syllables, before voiceless consonants, or before suffixes or parts of compounds (Auslautverhärtung 'final hardening;' 1.51):

	VOICED	VOICELESS
between vowels	lieben/libən	
word-finally		lieb /līp/
in compounds		Liebreiz /līpraits/
before suffix		Liebling /līpliŋ/
before /t/ or /s/		liebt /līpt/

All stops and spirants are voiceless in the above positions, and /g/ is pronounced [k] (Zweige-Zweig /tvaigə-tsvaik/); in the suffix -ig, <g> is pronounced /iç/: freudige-freudig /froidigə-froidiç/.

These alternations are not signaled in the orthography. Reading, therefore, of the proper alternations must be practiced.

Since there are no voiced consonants at the end of words in German, another typical trait of the German accent in English is the unvoicing of English voiced consonants, so that no distinction is heard, for example, between 'cab-cap,' 'cold-colt,' 'bug-buck.'

2.4 Vowels

Vowels (r Vokal, r Selbstlaut) are sounds articulated without hinrance of the breath stream along the middle of the vocal tract, which functions as a resonance chamber. All vowels are voiced segments.

2.41 Description of Vowels

The shape of the vocal tract is altered by the position and height of the tongue in relation to the roof of the mouth, and by the shape of the lips. Vowels are described according to the following parameters:

Height of the tongue:

high	German /ī/, /ū/
mid	/ē/, /ō/
low	/ā/

Position of the tongue:

front	/ī/, /ē/
back	/ū/, /ō/

Lip rounding:

round	/ǖ/, /ȫ/, /ū/, /ō/
unround	/ī/, /ē/, /ā/

Quantity:

long	/ē/
short	/e/

Energy:

lax	/ę/
tense	/ẹ/

Monophthongal:	/a/
Diphthongal:	/ai/

Syllabicity:

syllabic	/i̥/ in Dahlie
non-syllabic	/j/ in Taille

2.42 German and English Vowel Systems

The vowel system of German can be established by forming minimal pairs and phonemic contrasts. German has 18 vowel phonemes and, as prescribed by Siebs (1.92), a 19th phoneme, which has only marginal status. It is rendered in spelling by <ä>, phonetically /ε̄/ and is used when contrasting such pairs as bete and bäte or in dictations. However, in actual speech, this historically unjustified phone is seldom heard, since most speakers pronounce /ε̄/ and /ē/ identically.

1 /ī/	bieten	Stiele	ihn	ihre
2 /i/	bitten	Stille	in	irre
3 /ē/	beten	stehle	wen	zehre
4 /e/	Betten	Stelle	wenn	zerre
5 /ū/	Rute	Bulle	Rum	murre
6 /u/	Kutte	Bulle	Rum	murre
7 /ō/	rote	Sohle	Sohn	bohre
8 /o/	Rotte	solle	Bonn	Lorre
9 /ǖ/	Güte	fühle	kühn	führe
10 /ü/	Mütter	fülle	dünn	Dürre
11 /ȫ/	Goethe	Höhle	tönt	höre
12 /ö/	Götter	Hölle	könnt	dörre
13 /ā/	rate	fahle	Bahn	Haare
14 /a/	Ratte	falle	Bann	harre
15 /ai/	Leite	Feile	Bein	
16 /oi/	Leute	heule	neun	eure
17 /au/	laute	faule	Zaun	saure
18 /ə/	gesagt	bitte	wartete	bessere
(19 /ɛ̄/	bäte	stähle	wähne	währe)

The phoneme /ə/ only occurs in unstressed syllables.

The contrast between long and short vowels is a striking and important feature of German, but it only affects vowels in stressed positions: long when stressed as in kritisch /'krītiš/, and short when unstressed, as in Kritik /kri'tīk/. The feature which is constant and distinguishes the vowel quality in stressed and unstressed positions is the contrast between tense and lax. In stressed syllables, vowels are long and tense when in open syllable (2.63), e.g. Lied /lị̄t/, and short, but either lax or tense, in closed syllables: litt /lịt/ and Kritik /krị'tịk/. The distribution of tense and lax is more consistent in unstresed syllables in which vowels are always short. In open syllables, unstressed vowels are tense (Diner /dị'nẹ̄/), and in closed syllables, unstressed vowels are lax (diffus /dị'fụs/). In informal speech, the distinction between tense and lax is sometimes suspended, particularly in the pair /ạ/ and /a/.

In the following diagram, the feature 'long' includes 'tense' in open, stressed syllables, and the feature 'short' stands for 'lax or tense' in stressed closed syllables, as well as for 'tense only' in unstressed open, and 'lax only' in unstressed closed syllables.

The diagram also shows conflicts between the vowels of English and German, and indicates in square boxes those vowels which do not exist in English and which therefore, cause phonemic conflicts (2.331). Phonemic conflicts will be discussed in 2.433. The distinction between allophonic, phonetic, and phonemic conflicts between English and German is not always clear in vowels, since no standard in the American-English vowel system exists. Some English speakers may only have an allophonic conflict when learning a certain German vowel, others may have a phonemic problem. Therefore, those vowels which cause learning difficulties of one type or another are circled and will be discussed in the

subsequent paragraphs.

		FRONT unrd rd	CENTRAL unrd	BACK unrd rd	DIPHTHONGS
HIGH	long	ī ǖ		ū	ai oi au
	short	i ü		u	
MID	long	ē ȫ		ō	
	short	e ö	ə	o	
LOW	long			ā	
	short		a		

The most striking feature of English vowel phonemes is the diphthongal quality of half-long and long vowels by an off-glide, either to a higher tongue position (e.g. /e/ to /e^{i}/, e·^{i}/, to /ēi/ in 'let-late-laid-lay,' or to a more central tongue position /e^{ə}/ in 'bed).

Most Americans have fifteen vowel phonemes in stressed syllables, as shown in the following minimal piars. The list of phonemic notations omits diphthongal and allophonic variations, which will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

1	/ī/	beat	leak	dean	nearer
2	/i/	bit	lick	din	mirror
3	/ē/	bait	lake	Dane	Mary
4	/e/	bet	neck	den	merry
5	/æ/	bat	lack	Dan	marry
6	/a/	pot	lock	Don	starry
7	/ō/	boat	soak	bone	boring
8	/ɔ/	bought	hawk	dawn	warring
9	/ū/	boot	Luke	boon	poorer
10	/u/	put	leek		fury
11	/ʌ/	but	luck	bun	hurry
12	/3/	Bert	lurk	burn	furry
13	/ai/	bite	like	dine	Shirer
14	/oi/	Hoyt		coin	Moira
15	/au/	bout		down	Lowry

Only in unstressed syllables /ə/ occurs: about, gallop and comma. Although no American standard exists, the phonemic inventory of vowels in the American English system can be represented schematically as follows:

		FRONT unrd	CENTRAL unrd	BACK rd	DIPHTHONGS
HIGH	long	ī		ū	ai oi au
	short	i		u	
MID	long	ē	3	ō	
	short	e	ə ʌ		
LOW	long	æ		ɔ	
			a		

This system is essentially a compromise since no standard handbook on English pronunciation exists, such as German Siebs or Duden. Not only do the number of phonemes differ in various areas of the United States, but difference in allophones and distributions can also be found. Therefore, the subsequent distinction of learning problems for Americans pronouncing German sounds has validity only for some speakers but not for all.

In the English vowel system, lip rounding is not a phonemic feature distinguishing two phonemes such as German /i/ and /ü/, nor does English have a consistent opposition between tense and lax. The dimension long-short also differs slightly between the two languages in that English vowels are shorter before voiceless consonants ('leaf' /lif/), half-long before voiced-consonants ('leave' /li·v/), and long in word-final position ('lee' /lī/).

2.43 English-German Conflicts

When comparing the English and German vowel systems, a host of problems, which affect almost all vowels, becomes obvious. In the following paragraphs, allophonic, phonetic, and phonemic conflicts will be discussed, with the phonemic problems last, since new phonemes of German can only be mastered after the other German vowels are controlled.

The distinction between allophonic and phonetic problems is not always clear-cut and may be justifiable only for some English speakers. For example, those English speakers who distinguish /a/ in 'cot' [kat] and /ā/ in 'cart' [kāt] will have only allophonic problems in learning German /ā/ and /a/. All other speakers may have a phonetic or even phonemic problem with these sounds. There is, therefore, a considerable overlap between the allophonic, phonetic and phonemic conflicts due to the dialectal variations of English.

2.431 Allophonic Conflicts: /ī,ū,ē,ō/; /ai,oi,au/; /ɔ/

Allophonic conflicts between German and English concern mainly long vowels, which are diphthongal in English but monophthongal in German. Smaller problems arise from using

the wrong allophones in producing German /i,e,u/ and the diphthongs.

German /ī,ū,ē,ō/

These four long, tense vowels have a higher tongue position in German than in English and are always monophthongs. The phonemes appear exaggerated to American students, because they are very tense: /ī/ and /ū/ are articulated with a very high tongue position and very spread lips, and /ē/ and /ō/ are also higher than their English counterparts. Even if students are told that they must eliminated the diphthongal off-glide of their English long vowels, particularly in word-final position, they produce sounds which are too low. Drills contrasting English and German help teach auditory discrimination and articulatory control:

ENGLISH [i^i]	GERMAN /ī/	ENGLISH [u^u]	GERMAN /ū/
fee	Vieh	do	du
she	Schi	coo	Kuh
deep	Dieb	moose	Mus
sheen	schien	hoot	Hut

ENGLISH [e^i]	GERMAN /ē/	ENGLISH [o^u]	GERMAN /ō/
pay	P (letter	owe	O (letter
bay	B name)	so	so name)
gay	geh	tone	Ton
vain	wen	shone	schon

Students must learn to discriminate between tense [ị̄], [ụ̄], [ẹ̄] and [ọ̄] and lax [i̩], [u̩], [e̩] and [o̩]:

[ị̄]	[i̩]	[ụ̄]	[u̩]	[ẹ̄]	[e̩]
mied	mit	Mus	muß	den	denn
Lied	litt	Fuß	fluß	Beet	Bett
liest	List	bucht	Bucht	fehlen	fällen
bieten	bitten	Buße	Busse	Heer	Herr

[ọ̄]	[o̩]
bog	Bock
Schoß	schoß
Ofen	offen
Sohle	solle

Since German /ē/ and /ō/ are so much higher than the English counterparts, students tend to confuse them with German /ī/ and /ū/; therefore drills contrasting the high and the mid German vowels are needed:

/ē/	/ī/	/ō/	/ū/
See	sie	schob	Schub
weh	wie	Ton	Tun
wen	Wien	tot	tut
beten	bieten	Togen	Tugen

Finally, idiomatic expressions or proverbs can be used to practice discrimination and pronunciation in a more enjoyable manner:

[ē] - [e] - [ə]:

Jemandem einen Bären aufbinden. Fersengeld geben. Jemanden zur Rede stellen. Jemanden ins Gebet nehmen. Geben ist seliger denn Nehmen. Neue Besen kehren gut. Der Hehler ist nicht besser als der Stehler, and Andre Städtchen - andre Mädchen.

[ī] - [i]:

Im siebten Himmel sein. Auf Schritt und Tritt. Alle Schliche und Pfiffe kennen. Immer das alte Lied singen.
Wo man singt, da laß dich ruhig nieder, böse Menschen haben keine Lieder. Probieren geht über Studieren and Wie du mir, so ich dir.

[ū] - [u] - [ō] - [o]:

Nur mit der Ruhe. Lug und Trug. Keinen Schuß Pulver wert sein. Spott und Hohn. Sonne und Mond. Sich einen Korb holen.
Morgenstund hat Gold im Mund. Übermut tut selten gut. Not kennt kein Gebot. Borgen macht Sorgen. Wie gewonnen, so zerronen and Was du heute kannst besorgen, das verschiebe nicht auf morgen.

German /i,e,u/:

Only minor allophonic differences occur with the short vowels (except before /r/; 2.433), which tend to be allophonically lengthened and sometimes diphthongized in English.

German /ai, oi, au/:

The English counterparts of these German diphthongs are often lengthened, especially in word-final position and before voiced consonants. In German, the diphthongs consist of two short vowels. English diphthongs have many variations, depending on the areas speakers come from, so that German /ai/, for instance, is spoken by untrained English speakers as [æi], [oi], [əi], [$\bar{a}^{ə}$] and [$\bar{a}^{e}$]. Contrastive drills will make the differences clear:

ENGLISH /ai/-	GERMAN /ai/	ENGLISH /oi/ -	GERMAN /oi/
by	bei	Troy	treu
mine	mein	annoy	neu
bright	breit	boiler	Beule
lighten	leiten	loiter	Leute

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ENGLISH /au/ - GERMAN /au/

bough	Bau
row	rauh
brown	braun
mouse	Maus

/ai/:

Der Stein der Weisen. Klein aber mein. Reinen Wein einschenken. Zwei Eisen im Feuer haben. Klein beigeben. Eile mit Weile. Einmal ist keinmal. Was ich nicht weiß, macht mich nicht heiß.

/ai/ - /oi/ - /au/:

Treue um Treue. Die Kastanien aus dem Feuer holen. Sich ins Zeug legen. Jemandem heimleuchten. Sich auf die faule Haut legen. Saure Trauben. Beute seiner Leichtgläubigkeit sein;
Kleider machen Leute. Träume sind Schäume. Aus den Augen, aus dem Sinn. Einem geschenkten Gaul schaut man nicht ins Maul, and Morgen, morgen, nur nicht heute, sagen alle faulen Leute.

German /ə/ and [ʌ]:
In English, the phoneme /ə/ has various allophones, one of which expresses unstressed vowels in words such as 'sofa' and another the syllable -er in 'bitter.' German has two distinct sounds for the unstressed syllables in bitte /bitə/ and bitter /bitʌ/. (The symbol [ʌ] was used for both the English vowel-phoneme /ʌ/ in 'but' and for German -er, 2.332). Students have difficulty in hearing the difference between the sounds and imitating them; therefore, careful practice of /ə/ and [ʌ] in similar environments is required:

[ən] -	[ʌn]	[ət] -	[ʌt]	[əs] -	[ʌs]
Minden	mindern	wettet	wettert	Rittes	Ritters
Wunden	wundern	endet	ändert	Bannes	Banners
öffnen	Öffnern	bindet	hindert	Ringes	Ringers
enden	ändern	schneidet	schneidert	Bundes	Wunders

/ə/ -	[ʌ]
bitte	bitter
leide	leider
lese	Leser
Wunde	Wunder

Unlike the above distinctions, the unstressed syllables in words such as Königen-Königin will be heard by students, but it is not easy for students to imitate them unless they are made aware of the different sounds:

[ən] -	[in]
Wirten	Wirtin
Fürsten	Fürstin
Köchen	Köchin
Ärzten	Ärztin

2.432 Phonetic Conflicts: /ā,a,o/

German /ā̧,a̧,o̧/:

Many English speakers have only one /a/-sound, with allophones of varying length. For these speakers, the distinction between German /ā/ and /a/ constitutes a phonemic conflict. On the other hand, many American speakers distinguish between a short /a/ such as in 'cot' and a long /ā/ as in 'cart.' German short, lax [a̧] is phonetically closer to English /ʌ/ in 'but.' Drills help point out the difference between English /a/ and German /ā̧/ and the similarity between English /ʌ/ and German /a̧/:

ENGLISH /a/	- GERMAN /ā̧/	ENGLISH /ʌ/	- GERMAN /a̧/
par	Paar	up	ab
calm	kam	hut	hat
not	Naht	luck	Lack

Further drills contrasting German /ā̧/ and /a̧/ are needed:

/a̧/	- /ā̧/	/a̧/	- /ā̧/
Kamm	kam	Masse	Maße
kann	Kahn	Ratte	rate
satt	Saat	schaffe	Schafe

Many words have both /a/-sounds and can be used for practice:

Landstraße	Abfahrt	Tatsache	waghalsig	Landplage
Jahrgang	Wallfahrt	Angsthase	Abendland	fabelhaft
Kalbsbraten	Bratpfanne	Badeanstalt	Sparkasse	Hasenscharte

Idioms and proverbs can also be used:

Maß halten. Trübsal blasen. Mit allen Wassern gewaschen sein. Wer die Wahl hat, hat die Qual. Hoffen und Harren macht manchen zum Narren; and Iß, was gar ist, trink, was klar ist, sprich, was wahr ist.

In some areas of the United States, no distinction is made between English /a/ and /ɔ/. Speakers of this English dialect substitute German /a/ for /o/. Other speakers may distinguish /a/ and /ɔ/; /ɔ/, however, is phonetically different from German /o̧/: /o̧/ is laxer and shorter. With such variety in the English /ɔ/, students must first work towards distinguishing between whatever variant they may have in English and German /o̧/:

ENGLISH /ɔ/	- GERMAN /o̧/	ENGLISH /ɔ/	- GERMAN /o̧/
top	topp	caught	Gott
dock	Dock	sought	sott
Ross	Roß	balk	Bock
cost	Kost	calk	Koch
fall	voll	naught	Motte

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After students have learned to distinguish the English and German /ọ/-sounds, drills will help show the difference between German /ọ/ and /a/, respectively /ā/.

/ạ/ -	/ọ/	/ā̤/ -	/ọ/
Kamm	komm	kam	komm
Bann	Bonn	Bahn	Bonn
Dach	doch	nach	noch
sacke	Socke	Laken	Locken
Gassen	gossen	Gas	goß

/ā̤/ - /ạ/ -/ō̤/ - /ọ/:

Pathos	angstvoll	Ohnmacht	Abendrot	Ortsangabe
Knopfloch	Mokkatasse	Rosenkranz	Glockenklang	Sonderpost
Botschaft	Almosen	Hasenohr	Montag	Tomate

2.433 Phonemic Conflicts: /ǖ,ü,ȫ,ö/; Stressed Vowels before /r/

German /ǖ,ü,ȫ,ö/:

The rounded front vowels /ǖ,ü,ȫ,ö/ combine the features of frontness as in /ī,i,ē,e/, with the features of lip-rounding, as in /ū,u,ō,o/, a combination which is never found in English. These phonemes are therefore new to English speakers and constitute a phonemic problem.

For /ǖ,ü/, the tongue position is identical to that in /ī,i/, but the lip rounding is the same as in /ū,u/. Similarly, the configuration of the vocal tract for /ȫ,ö/ is the same as for /ē,e/, with the liprounding of /ō,o/.

Students frequently ignore the dots or ticks over the graphemes when reading, and substitute their familiar /u/ or /o/ for these sounds.

In order to practice the phonetic features of the new phonemes, drills contrasting the related sounds are helpful:

/ī/ -	/ǖ/	/ū/ -	/ǖ/	/i/ -	/ü/
Kien	kühn	Fuß	Füße	mißt	müßt
Biene	Bühne	Zug	Züge	Gericht	Gerücht
liegen	lügen	gut	Güte	Kissen	Küssen

/u/ -	/ü/
Schuß	Schüsse
Bund	Bünde
Mutter	Mütter

/ü/ - /ǖ/:

Südstürme, Frühlingslüfte, Frühstück, Bühnenstück. Im Trüben fischen. Jemanden belügen und betrügen. In Hülle und Fülle. Es grünt und blüht. Vom Glück begünstigt. Eine Sünde sühnen. Überfluß bringt Überdruß and In der Kürze liegt die Würze.

/ē/	- /ȫ/	/ō/	- /ȫ/	/e/	- /ö/
Sehne	Söhne	Sohn	Söhne	Mächte	möchte
Hefe	Höfe	Hof	Höfe	fällig	völlig
bete	böte	Ofen	Öfen	kennen	können

/o/	- /ö/
Bock	Böcke
Zelle	Zölle
konnte	könnte

Frequently students substitute English /3/ for German /ö/. A drill helps point out the difference:

ENGLISH /3/	- GERMAN /ȫ/	ENGLISH /3/	- GERMAN /ö/
burn	schön	Burke	Böcke
earl	Öl	hurler	Hölle
Bergen	Bögen	shirker	Stöcke
learner	Löhne	girder	Götter

/ȫ/ - /ö/:

Göttersöhne, Königstöchter, Röntgenröhren, Höllengetöse, Körpergröße, Ölgötze, Böhmische Dörfer. Sich in die Höhle des Löwen wagen. Sich eine Blöße geben. Die Flöhe husten hören. Man soll Böses nicht mit Bösem vergelten. Ein böser Geselle führt den andren zur Hölle. Ehrgeiz und Flöhe springen gern in die Höhe and Wer nicht hören will, muß fühlen.

Stressed Vowels before German /r/:

English speakers who distinguish tense vowels /ị,ẹ,ụ,ọ/ before intervocalic /r/ in words such as 'nearer,' 'Mary,' 'poorer,' and 'boring,' and lax vowels /į,ę,ų,ǫ/ in 'mirror,' 'merry,' 'fury,' and 'warring' will only have an allophonic conflict when learning German vowels before /r/. However, many English speakers tend to suspend the lax-tense distinction before intervocalic /r/ and will therefore have a phonemic problem when learning distinctions such as German ihre /ịrə/ and irre /įrə/. Before post-vocalic /r/, English speakers use a very reduced vowel, or no /r/ at all and a syllabic /^/. In contrast, in German, all vowel phonemes (except diphthongs) are tense in open syllables and lax in closed syllables.

Drills must therefore be used to point out the difference between English lax vowels before /r/ and German lax or tense vowels; this will help to remedy the particular difficulty English speakers have in pronouncing tense vowels.

ENGLISH /į/	- GERMAN /ị̄/	ENGLISH /ę/	- GERMAN /ẹ̄/
deary	Tiere	Mary	Meere
nearer	Niere	hairy	Heere
fear	vier	air	er
pier	Pier	dare	der

ENGLISH /ụ/	- GERMAN /ụ̄/	ENGLISH /ɔ/	- GERMAN /ọ̄/
surer	Fuhre	tory	Tore
touring	Touren	ore	Ohr
poor	pur	more	Moor
cure	Kur	four	vor

Contrasts between German lax and tense vowels must also be practiced:

/ị̄/	- /ị/	/ẹ̄/	- /ẹ/	/ụ̄/	- /ụ/
ihre	irre	Speere	Sperre	Fluren	knurren
schmieren	schirren	Heer	Herr	Geburt	geknurrt
studiert	geirrt	gezehrt	gezerrt	fuhrst	kurz

/ọ̄/	- /ọ/	/ạ̄/	- /ạ/
Lore	Lorre	Haare	harre
vor	fort	sparen	Sparren
Moor	Mord	Bart	hart

Since the rounded front vowels and the tense-lax distinction before /r/ are phonemic conflicts, special attention must be given to these:

/ị̄/ -	/ụ̈̄/ -	/ụ̄/	/ị/ -	/ụ̈/ -	/ụ/
Tieren	Türen	Touren	irre	Dürre	murre
gebiert	gebührt	Geburt	Wirbel	mürbe	Kurbel
vier	für	fuhr	Viertel	Gürtel	Wurzel

/ẹ̄/ -	/ọ̈̄/ -	/ọ̄/	/ẹ/ -	/ọ̈/ -	/ọ/
Meere	Möhre	Moore	zerre	dörre	Lorre
wehre	Föhre	Tore	Wärme	Hörner	worden
lehrt	stört	bohrt	herrsche	Mörtel	Pforte

2.434 Distributional Conflicts: Unstressed Vowels

As we have seen, the phoneme /ə/ occurs in unstressed syllables in German, but only in those which are rendered in writing as <e> and which are primarily inflectional syllables or prefixes. In unstressed syllables which contain vowels other than <e>, the full vowels are spoken:

ENGLISH	GERMAN
sofa /sōfə/	Sofa /zọ̄fạ̄/
comma /komə/	Komma /kọmā/

As a rule, unstressed vowels in German words are short and tense in open syllables and lax in closed syllables. In foreign words (Fremdwörter, 1.7), however, unstressed vowels can also be long in open syllables:

ENGLISH	GERMAN
philosophic /filəsafik/	philosophisch /ˌfịlọ̄ˈzọ̄fịš/

In English, unstressed vowels are pronounced either as /ə/ or /i/, and the distribution of /ə/ in English is

therefore much wider than in German.

German unstressed vowels, especially those in foreign words which exist in both languages but not always with the same stress pattern, must be practiced:

atmospheric /ˌætməs'fęrịk/	atmosphärisch /ˌạtmọs'fērịš/
aquamarine /ˌækwənə'rịn/	aquamarin /ˌākvāmā'rīn/
sentimental /ˌsęntəmęntəl/	sentimental /ˌzęntīmęn'tāl/
immatriculate /ịmə'trịkjulęt/	immatrikulieren /ˌịmātrīkū'līrən/
Americanization /ˌæmerəkənə'zêšən/	Amerikanisierung /ˌāmērīkānī'zīruŋ/

2.5 Suprasegmentals

Stress, intonation and juncture are, in contrast to phonemes, non-segmental entities which indicate grammatical or emphatic distinctions. Conflicts between English and German suprasegmentals are only minor and are exclusively distributional.

2.51 Stress

Word Stress:

In words, three degrees of stress are distinguished:

Primary stress is on the most prominent syllable of a word:

'Abfahrt 'Sonnenschein

Secondary stress is on the second most prominent syllable:

'Ab,fahrt 'Son-nen,schein

Tertiary stress is on what is designated as unstressed syllables:

'ab,fah-ren 'Son-nen,schein

In some English and German words, the difference in the syllable which receives primary stress distinguishes grammatical function. For instance, verb and nouns are distinguished by stress:

'Unterricht – unter'richt(en) 'overhang – over'hang

In German, separable verbs have stressed prefixes, and inseparable verbs have unstressed prefixes (3.131):

Er wieder' holt es – er holt es 'wieder

A minor pedagogical problem arises here, since the stress pattern and the position of subordinate clauses in the terminal slot is unfamiliar (5.32):

...wenn er es 'wieder,holt – ...wenn er es ,wieder'holt
...'if he gets it again' 'if he repeats it'

Briefly, a stress shift occurs in suffixes on present participles or adjectives:

'leben - ,le'bendig 'wahr,haft - ,wahr'haftig

A further stress shift occurs in the plural formation of foreign nouns, mainly those ending with -or (4.123):

'Dok,tor - ,Dok'toren

Clause Constituent Stress:

Clause constitutent stress (5.21), also known as syntactic stress, concerns the most prominent word or word group in clauses. The stress indicates the emphasis on the constituent of the clause (5.2241):

Wer arbeitet im Büro? Peter arbeitet im Büro.
Wo arbeitet Peter? Peter arbeitet im Büro.

In neutral clauses, which have no particular emphasis on any constituent, the stress usually falls on the last stress group in English and German, although not necessarily on the same parts of speech:

Peter arbeitet heute abend lange in seinem 'Büro.
'Peter works in his office late 'tonight.'

Within a noun phrase (4.ff), the stress sometimes falls on the determiner (4.13ff):

'Show me that book! Give me only one kilo!'

Since German der-words (4.163) are often used as demonstratives and there is no distinction between ein as a determiner and as a number, students do not immediately realize that the above English clauses correspond to the following German clauses, unless the function of stress is pointed out:

Zeigen Sie mir 'das Buch! Geben Sie mir nur 'ein Kilo!

Similarly, prepositional pronouns with da- (4.162) can differ in stress:

Ich glaube ,da'ran. 'I believe in it.'
Ich glaube 'da,ran. 'I believe in that.

In general, stress is not a serious teaching problem and must be pointed out only occasionally.

2.52 Intonation

Intonation, sometimes called 'speech melody,' is indicated in some textbooks with musical notations. Intonation in speaking is parallel to punctuation (2.65) in writing: both signal the end of an utterance. A full stop denotes that the utterance is ended; a fading intonation /↓/ does the same in speech:

Er ist hier /↓/ 'He is here /↓/'

Questions have a rising intonation:

Ist er hier /↑/ 'Is he here /↑/'

Incomplete utterances has a sustained intonation which is frequently indicated in writing by a comma or a colon:

Er ist hier /→/ aber...'He is here /→/ but...'

Such intonational features are called 'terminals,' and they do not differ in English and in German.

Within clauses, intonation is not only signaled by terminals, but also by pitch levels, of which three can be distinguished. They are symbolized by the numbers 1,2, and 3. At the end of utterances with fading intonation /↓/, the lowest pitch level (1) occurs, a higher pitch is on the onset of an utterance (2), and the highest pitch coincides with the stress on the emphasized, stressed clause consituent (3):

2 3 1
Er kommt jetzt /↓/

In yes/no questions (5.211), the intonation 2-3-2 is most common:

2 2 3
Kommt er jetzt /↑/

In imperatives (5.211), a brusque command is given by the intonation 2-3-1; a more polite command is 3-2-3:

2 3 1
Komm doch jetzt /↓/

3 2 3
Komm doch jetzt /↓/

There are only minor intonational conflicts between English and German.

2.53 Juncture

Juncture is the feature which distinguishes words from one another by making a break between them. For instance, if there were no such marker, the clause Er kann acht Sprachen could be misunderstood as the nonsensical statement *Er kann Nachtsprachen. In the first clause, there is an open juncture between kann and acht: /ēr kan+axt šprāxən/; the misunderstanding occurs when the juncture is closed and no audible break is made between the words.

Open juncture not only distinguishes words, but also grammatical boundaries between prefixes and suffixes and the stem, or between parts of compound words, such as

unangenehm /un+an+gə+nēm/   Herbstaster /herpst+astʌ/

In German, open juncture in front of vowels is signaled by the glottal stop /ʔ/ (r Knacklaut), a brief closure of the glottis which is found occasionally in English when enunciating, for example, 'not at all' very distinctly as /nat+ʔæt+ʔɔl/. In German, the glottal stop is very frequent, particularly in careful speech in all word-initial

stressed vowels, such as meine eigenen Augen /mainə+ʔaigənən+ʔaugən/. In less careful colloquial speech, there may be closed juncture and no glottal stop before vowels, so that a formal vs. colloquial distinctive pair results:

Darf ich auch essen?	formal	/darf+ʔiç+ʔaux+ʔesən/
	colloquial	/darfiç+auxesən/

Since the transfer of the glottal stop into English by German speakers is another characteristic of a German accent in English, and since the omission of the glottal stop can, together with other characteristics of the accent in German, lead to minor misunderstandings, it should be practiced:

der ʔAnfang	bereinigen - verʔeinigen
sie ʔarbeiten	bereisen - verʔeisen
wer ʔantwortet	Beiname - Beinʔader

2.6 Orthography

German orthography (<Greek orthos+graphein 'straight+writing') (e Orthographie, e Rechtschreibung) is far more consistent and easier to learn than English spelling, since the graphemes of the Latin alphabet have been adopted adequately for the representation of German phonemes and since successive writing reforms have eliminated many historical spellings, which still abound in English.

2.61 Consonant Graphemes

Despite the generally good fit of the consonant phonemes and the corresponding graphemes, there are some alternations, since the spelling does not reflect different pronunciations of the same grapheme in different environments. Such cases are:

<b,d,g> /b,d,g/
/p,t,k/

In word-final position and before consonants and suffixes, voiced stops and spirants are unvoiced (1.51; 2.333):

VOICED	VOICELESS	
Lobe /lōbə/	Lob /lōp/	lobt /lōpt/
Hände /hendə/	Hand /hant/	handlich /hantliç/
Tage /tāgə/	Tag /tāk/	täglich /tēkliç/
Motive /motīvə/	Motive /motīf/	motivreich /mōtīfraiç/

<ch> /x/ /ç/ <chs> /ks/ /xs/ <-ig> /iç/ /ik/ /ig/

After back vowels (2.4), the grapheme <ch> represents /x/. After front vowels and in the diminutive syllable -chen, the same grapheme represents /ç/. Through inflection, back vowels become front vowels by umlaut of the same stem

vowel (1.33; 4.123). Therefore, /x/ and /ç/ alternate in some words:

/x/		/ç/	
Buch	/būx/	Bücher	/būçʌ/
Koch	/kox/	Köche	/köçə/
Bach	/bax/	Bäche	/bäçə/
Bauch	/baux/	Bäuche	/boiçə/

The trigraph <chs> represents /ks/: sechs, Fuchs and Lachs, and does not alternate. However, in the genitive of der- and das-nouns ending with /x/, the resulting <chs> is spoken /xs/:

des Studienfachs /stūdiənfaxs/
des Meisterkochs /maistʌkoxs/

The suffix <-ig> is pronounced /iç/ word-finally, /ik/ before consonants, and /ig/ before vowels:

/iç/	/ik/	/ig/
König/kōniç/	königlich/kōnikliç/	Könige /kōnigə/

<s>: /s/, /z/ and /š/

The grapheme <s> represents /s/ word initially before consonants in foreign words: Skrupel /skrupəl/, and medially and finally before /p,t/: Wespe /vespə/ and Lust /lust/. It also represents /s/ after long vowels word-finally: Haus /haus/, although in the inflected forms, it alternates with /z/ between vowels: Häuser /hoizʌ/.

The grapheme <s> represents /š/ word-initially before /p,t/: Spiel /špīl/ and Stadt /štat/.

The digraph <ss> is /s/ medially after short vowels: Flüsse /flüsə/. The symbol <ß> (s Eszet) is written medially after long vowels instead of <ss>, and word-finally after vowels and before /t/ (if /s/ does not alternate with /z/ in inflected forms): Füße /fūsə/, Fuß /fūs/ and mußt /must/.

The use of <ß> should be taught, since it is a phonetic signal.

Writing Conventions

Consonants are doubled to indicate short preceding vowels (2.62): Stelle. The writing convention for double /k/ is <ck>, which is written <k-k> in syllabic division (2.63): Stek-ken and Stecken. The double grapheme for <z> /ts/ is <tz>: Bat-zen and Batzen.

In compound words, the first of which ends in a double consonant and the second in the same consonant, only two are written: Schiff+Fahrt: Schiffahrt.

The spelling of <dt> was introduced in Stadt to distinguish the word from Statt and has no historical or morphological justification. However, <dt> in sandte and gesandt, for example, is justified, since the stem ends with a -d, and the added t is a morpheme (3.134).

2.62 Vowel Graphemes

The vowel letters of the alphabet provide no indication of vowel quantity in stressed syllables (2.43). To indicate the phonemic difference between long and short vowels, orthographic signals of consonantal, vocalic, or syllabic nature are employed.

The general rule for the graphemic representation of short and long vowels is as follows:

Short vowels:

Followed by two or more consonants and in closed syllables:
Stille, Licht; Betten, Bänke; flügge, flüchten; Hölle, möchte spucken, sungen; offen, ordnen; and Ratte, Ranke.

As double consonants count: <ck> for <kk>: Socke
<tz> for <zz>: Katze
<ss> for <ss>: Masse

Before the following diagraphs and clusters, the vowels are always short:

<sch>: waschen
<chs>: wachsen
<cht>: Wacht
<cks>: Knicks
<x>[ks]: Hexe

Long vowels:

Followed by a single consonant and in open syllables:

Stile, beten, Flüge, höre, spuken, Ofen and raten.

As single consonant counts: <ß> for /s/:

Maße

Marked by a double vowel (only <e,o,a>):

Beet
Moos
Saal

Marked by <e> (only <i>):

Riese

Marked by silent <h>:

ihm, Mehl
kühl, Ohr
Pfuhl, wohl, Ahn

At end of a word when stressed:

Schi, je, Zulu,
Otto, ja.

The diphthongs /ai/: <ei, ai>, /oi/ <äu, eu>, and /au/ <au> are always long. This general rule, however, has several exceptions:

In closed syllables, short vowels occur in many monosyllabic words which end in a single consonant. They are primarily prepositions: in, ab, an, bis, von (vs. vor), zum (vs. zur) and pronouns: was, das and man.

Some consonant graphemes do not clearly indicate the quantity of the preceding vowel, and there are some alternations in vowel lengths before the same consonants. These primarly involve:

<ch>, especially before <u,o,a>:

SHORT	LONG
Bruch	Buch
Woche, Koch	hoch
Schach	Lache, Schmach

However, verbs with <ch> after the stem vowel are always short: sprechen, machen and lachen. The vowel quantity of the simple past and past participles of strong verbs (sprach, gesprochen) and their derivatives (Sprache, Gespräch) are determiend by historical factors and discussed in 3.133.

<st>:

SHORT	LONG
Küste	Wüste, hüsteln
Osten, Frost	Ostern, Trost
östlich	Österreich
Muster	Schuster

<r+dental> in some words with <e>:

SHORT	LONG
fertig	Erde, Herd, Pferd, Schwert, Wert werden

If students are made aware of these ambiguous graphemes learn the relatively few words as idiomatic vocabulary should not encounter too many problems.

In a few words which are compounds or derivatives, vowels followed by two consonants are long because of an open syllable of the base form, for example nämlich is long because of Name, Beschwerde (beschweren), höchst (hohe), nebst (neben) and flugs (Flug-Flüge).

In monosyllabic nouns, a closed syllable becomes open in the inflected forms; therefore, the vowel is long, e.g. Weg and Wege. The adverb weg, in contrast, was never inflected and has a short vowel.

Briefly, the vowel quantity of vowels can only be explained through their history. For instance, Obst, Mond and Adler have long vowels, since they come from MHG obez, māne and adelār. Through lengthening in open syllable (1.51)

and subsequent syncope of the unstressed vowel, and, in *Obst* and *Mond*, the addition of an unorganic dental, the words developed into their modern form.

Graphemic Overlap:

Several individual phonemes have two or more graphemes, such as /i/ represented by either <i,ih,ie>. Some of these spellings can only be explained historically.

/ī/ <i> Some words, mostly of foreign origin, are marked for length by open syllables, such as *Liter*, *Bibel* and *Wisent*.

<ie> Many German words with <ie> arose from the monophthongization of the MHG diphthong *ie* /iə/. When the diphthong was no longer spoken, the grapheme <e> was introduced in spelling into the words whose vowel was lengthened in open syllable such as MHG *sige*, NHG *Sieg* (1.51).

Students tend to confuse the digraphs <ei> ('receive') and <ie> ('believe'). An old gradeschool rhyme can be adapted: "When *e* and *i* do the walking, the last one does the talking," since in terms of English, the last part of the digraph <ie> is /ī/, of <ei> is /ai/.

<ih> The spelling <ih> in those few pronouns such as *ihn* and *ihm* was introduced to distinguish them from the prepositions *in* and *im*. In analogy, the other personal pronouns beginning with *i* were also spelled *ihnen*, *ihr*.

/ā/ <a> <ah> The spelling of a silent <h> after the vowel after <a> (and <o,u> comes from MHG, in which itervocalic <h> was spoken, e.g. *stāhel*. Later, the <h> became silent and unstressed syllables lost, and the <h> was introduced as a length sign *Stahl*. Intervocalic <h> in modern German is not pronounced, for example: *Mühe* /mǖə/and *nahe* /nāə/.
<aa> The writing convention of doubling the vowels *a* (*Saal*), *e* (*Beet*), and *o* (*Moos*) has existed since the Early New High German period and is now only reflected in relatively few words. In the plural and in derivatins which demand umlaut, <aa> becomes single: *Saal-Säle* and *Paar-Pärchen*. There is no umlaut on <oo>.

/e/ <e> Middle High German had two distinct short *e*-sounds, one from Germanic *e (*herze*), and one from the umlaut of Gmc **a* (*gast-geste*). Later these two sounds merged.

<ä> In a 19th century spelling reform, words which were in morphophonemic alternation between /a/ and /e/, caused by umlaut, were spelled with <ä>: *Gast-Gäste* (some words were overlooked: *alt-Eltern*) The same holds true for /ā/ and /ē/. The dots (or ticks), incidentally, on the umlaut graphemes <ä,ö,ü> come from writing a Gothic 𝔢 (e) above the back vowel.

/ai/ <ei> MHG had a diphthong $/e^{i}/$ and a long vowel /ī/. The latter was diphthongized (1.51) and merged with the original diphthong to /ai/. In some instances, homonyms arose: MHG wīz 'white' and weiz 'I know' are both NHG weiß.

<ai> Other homonyms arising from this development were distinguised writing:

MHG	sīte	'side'	NHG Seite	MHG	seite	'string'	NHG Saite
	wīse	'song'	Weise		weise	'orphan'	Waise
	līp	'body'	Leib		leip	'loaf'	Laib

Some other words, most of them of foreign origin, are also spelled with <ai>, for example: Kaiser, Mai and Mais.

<ey> <ay> The spelling of <ey, ay> in some names originated in the ENHG period: Meyer, Mayer.

2.63 Syllabic Division

Syllables have been mentioned in the previous paragraphs in connection with vowel length indicating long vowels and closed syllables signaling short vowels.

The knowledge of syllabic structure is not only important for theprediction of vowel length but also for writing when dividing words at the end of lines.

A word has as many syllables as it has vowels (diphthongs count as one vowel):

1 syllable : Reh, Maß, Durst
2 syllables: Ro-se, See-le, Son-ne
3 syllables: Fei-er-tag, Son-nen-schein
4 syllables: Ab-fahrts-zei-ten, be-ob-ach-ten
5 syllables: Miß-ver-ständ-nis-se, voll-au-to-ma-tisch
6 syllables: Auf-trags-be-stä-ti-gung

Division of syllables at the end of lines in writing occurs according to the following rules:

Single vowels are not divided from the rest of the word:

Ebe-ne(not E-be-ne), Haie (not Hai-e)

Two vowels can be divided (if they are not diphthongs) when they are morphemes:

Fei-er, Trau-ung, Be-am-ter

A single consonant following and preceding a vowel is divided after the first vowel, thereby creating an open syllable:

ge-ben, be-we-gen

In the same manner, morphemes which are suffixes and begin with a vowel take the preceding consonant into the second line, in contrast to English 'spell-ing:'

Woh-nung, Freun-din, freu-dig, Bäcke-rei

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The following count as single intervocalic consonants in this instance: <sch, ch, ß, ph, x, z>

wa-schen, wa-chen, Fü-ße, Phi-lo-so-phie, He-xe, Schnau-ze

When two or more consonants follow and precede vowels, the last consonant goes on the following line:

Bet-ten, Tisch-ler, Kek-se, Stim-me, Er-de

The following count as double consonants: <ck (k-k), chs, cht, tz, ng, nk>.

Wek-ker, wach-sen, Lich-ter, Kat-ze, sin-gen, sin-ken

However, the combination <st> is never divided:

hu-sten, Ka-sten, ber-sten

In compound words where three identical consonants are shortened to two (2.61), the division reintroduces the third consonant:

Schiff-fahrt, Schnell-lauf

2.64 Capitalization

One of the typical features of German orthography is the capitalization of nouns. Capitalized are:

All nouns (4.12) e.g.: der Mann, das Du and die Zwei

In letters, the pronouns denoting the addressee:

Du kannst Dir Deinen Wunsch erfüllen; Freut Ihr Euch?

Adjectives derived from towns and countries ending with -er, e.g.:

das Münchner Bier and der Schweizer Käse

Adjectives as parts of titles e.g.:

Karl der Große, Otto der Erste and der Große Bär

After punctuation marks, full stop, question mark, exclamation mark, and colon in direct speech, the first word is capitalized:

Er fragte: "Geht Petra mit?" "Ja, ganz bestimmt. Bring Ilse auch mit! Das freut uns."

2.65 Punctuation

German punctuation differs from the English only in a few instances:

Full stops are written after ordinal numbers (4.1472):

Sonntag, den 2. Mai (zweiten)
Friedrich II. (der Zweite)

Full stops also are written after abbreviations that are spoken as full words:

z.B. (zum Beispiel) i.A. (im Auftrag)

However, after abbreviations spoken as letters, no full stops occurs:

DM (Demark = Deutsche Mark) VW (Vauwe = Volkswagen)

Commas differ from English use only slightly:
As opposed to English, no comma occurs before und and oder in three-part enumerations:

Feuer, Wasser und Erde 'fire, water, and earth'

A comma is often used in English after prepositional modifier phrases (3.413) preceding the subject. In German, modifiers are not divided from the verb phrase:

Nach einem anstrengenden Tag ging er schließlich heim.

'After an exhausting day, he finally went home.'

All subordinate clauses in German (5.33ff) are divided from main clauses by a comma. In English, frequently no comma occurs, particularly not before 'that':

Sie weiß nicht, daß er sie besuchen wird.

'She doesn't know that he will visit her.'

More details about the punctuation between clauses will be given in chapter 5.

CHAPTER THREE

3. VERB PHRASE
3.1 Forms in the Verb Phrase
3.11 Verbal inflection

Verbs (<Latin verbum 'word') (s Verb, Zeitwort, Tätigkeitswort) are inflected (<Latin inflectere 'to bend') (e Flexion, Beugung, Biegung). The inflection of verbs is also called conjugation (<Latin conjugare 'to join together') (e Konjugation). Inflection is a change of form for grammatical purposes.

The devices of inflection are grammatical (bound) morphemes (<Greek morphe 'form') (s Morpheme), minimal units of grammatical function and meaning in languages. In German and English, the following verbal inflectional morphemes can be distinguished:

(1) Addition of an inflectional ending to the stem of the verb, such as English /-s/ 'he talks,' German /-t/ er sagt. (3.141).

(2) A change of the stem vowel (internal inflection):

(2a) Ablaut (vowel gradation; 1.33), which is a change of stem vowel in strong verbs (3.133) for tense formation according to vowel alternations inherited from Indo-European (1.2); e.g., English 'sing-sang-sung,' German singen-sang-gesungen. (3.133).

(2b) Umlaut (vowel mutation; 1.422), which is the palatalization (2.42) of back vowels to the corresponding front vowels caused by Germanic *i or *j in the following syllable (1.34). In German strong verbs, umlaut occurs in the er- and du-forms present indicative (3.133; 3.161) of verbs with the stem vowel <-a->, changing to <-ä-> (fahren, du fährst, er fährt) and with the stem vowel <-e->, changing to <-i(e)-> (geben, du gibst, er gibt; sehen, du siehst, er sieht). Umlaut also occurs in the general subjunctive (3.163) of strong verbs (kommen, kam, käme).

3.12 Inflected Forms

Verbs are usually described as inflected for:

Person: ich/wir-form (1st person)
du/ihr-form (2nd person)
er(es, sie)/sie (Sie)-form (3rd person)

Number: singular
plural

Tense: present (3.161; 3.21-3.215)
simple past (3.162)

present perfect (3.171)
past perfect (3.172)
future (3.173)
future perfect (3.174)

Mood: indicative (3.161-3.162; 3.171-3.174; 3.221)
subjunctive: general subjunctive (3.163; 3.224-3.2244)
special subjunctive (3.164; 3.225-3.2252)
imperative (3.165; 3.226)

Voice: active voice (3.16-3.175; 3.231)
passive voice (3.18-3.183; 3.232)

The above terms and concepts are derived from Latin (and, ultimately, from Greek), in which all verb forms were inflected: e.g., Latin amāverintur can be analyzed thus:

am- verb stem 'to love'
-ā- thematic vowel of class of verb
-vēr- morpheme of the perfect tense
-ī- morpheme of subjunctive mood
-nt- morpheme of the 'they'-form
-ur- morpheme of passive voice.

In English and German, this Latin inflected (synthetic) form can only be rendered in a compound (analytic) manner as 'they may have been loved' sie mögen geliebt worden sein.

Only a few verb forms are inflected in English: For person, the 'he'-form of the present tense ('he sing-s') and the equivalent of the special subjunctive ('he be-'). For tense, the past indicative (and for mood, the general subjunctive which is identical with the past indicative) shows inflection: 'he talk-ed, spoke.' Only the verb 'to be' distinguishes singular and plural and in the past indicative: 'was-were.'

Similarly, modern German shows inflection of verbs only in the present and past indicative tenses, as well as in the forms of the subjunctive and imperative moods for person and number (3.16-3.175). All other forms are, as in English, composed of grammatical (analytic, compounded) combinations of an auxiliary (haben, sein; werden; 3.136) with a non-finite (unconjugated) form of the verb (3.15ff).

Since attempts to formulate a more adequate terminology for grammatical relationships in modern languages have not been generally adopted in language teaching, the Latin terms are maintained in many instances. Their advantage is their internationality (e.g., 'present': German Präsens, French présent, Spanish and Italian presente). The disadvantage of the Latin terminology is its implicit definition on the basis of meaning and not on form; e.g., 'imperfect' comes from Latin imperfectum 'not completed,' indicating that the tense by this name denotes an incomplete

action. This is not true in English and German; therefore, the term 'preterite' (<Latin praeteritum 'gone by') (s Präteritum) is preferable. Many textbooks use the term 'simple past' which denotes at least one formal characteristic; this term is employed here.

3.13 Verb Types

Based on morphological and syntactical factors, German and English verbs are divided in four types. Morphological and inflectional characteristis necessitate the distinction of weak (regular, t-verbs; 3.132) and strong (irregular, n-verbs; 3.133) verbs. Mixed verbs (3.135) have weak and strong characteristics. Morphological, syntactical, and semantic reasons require a distinction of modal verbs from all other types. The three auxiliaries haben, sein, and werden (3.136) are irregular in some instances; their function in the formation of compound tenses (3.17ff) and the passive voice (3.18ff) necessitates their separate classification.

VERB TYPE	NUMBER	MORPHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS	GERMAN EXAMPLE	ENGLISH COMPARISON
weak	infinite	no stem vowel change; past part -t	sag-en sag-te- ge-sag-t	talk talk-ed talk-ed
strong	c.155	stem vowel changes; past part-(e)n	sing-en sang- ge-sung-en	sing sang sung
mixed	8	stem vowel > a; past part -t	denk-en dach-te- ge-dach-t	think thought thought
modal + wissen	6+1	minor stem vowel change; past part -t	könn-en kann- konn-te- ge-konn-t	can could
auxiliaries	3	irregular in varying degrees	haben sein, war werden	have be, was

These distinctions present no teaching problems, since the English and German verb types have comparable characteristics. The number of members in each class shows that the variety is not as great as textbooks frequently lead students to believe.

3.131 Separable and Inseparable Verbs

The distinction between separable and inseparable verbs has primarily syntactical relevance and only one morphological characteristic, i.e. no ge- in the past participle of inseparable verbs (3.152). Separable and inseparable verbs are weak, strong, or mixed verbs with a prefix.

Separable verbs are formed by the combination of any verb (except modal verbs) with a preposition (an-, auf-, vor- etc.), adverb (vorwärts-, zurück-, etc.), adjective (tot-, frei-, etc.), verb (kennen-, sitzen-), noun (maschine-), or even prepositional phrase (nach Hause-). These prefixes are stressed, and the prefix is divided from the verb in the finite forms in main clauses (5.2ff):

Present indicative: Er fährt jetzt mit dem Zug...ab

In subordinate clauses (5.3ff), in which the finite verb is in the terminal slot (5.32), the prefix and verb rejoin: Weil er jetzt mit dem Zug...abfährt...

In the infinitive (3.151), prefix and verb are always together: Wir müssen mit dem Zug abfahren.

The infinitive with zu (3.2411) is formed with the zu between prefix and verb: Er braucht nicht mit dem Zug abzufahren.

Similarly, the past participle (3.152) includes -ge- between prefix and verb: Er ist mit dem Zug abgefahren.

Inseparable verbs have the prefixes be-, ge-, emp-, er-, miß. ver or zer-, which are always unstressed. They are never divided from the verb, and their past participle has no ge-.

Wir besuchen die Freunde in Berlin.
Wir haben die Freunde in Berlin besucht.

Since the prefix is unstressed, the addition of another unstressed syllable ge- would violate the rule of initial stress in the Germanic languages (1.31). Another group of verbs whose first syllable is unstressed, since they are not Germanic but mostly borrowed from French, are verbs ending in -ieren, e.g. studieren. These verbs are like inseparable verbs in that they do not have ge- in the past participle. They are always weak: Er hat...studiert.

Verbs with the prefixes durch-, über-, um-, unter-, voll-, or wieder- can be separable or inseparable, depending on their meaning. The inseparable verbs have a figurative meaning and the separable verbs have a literal meaning:

Der Hund holt den Stock wieder. 'The dog (retrieves) the stick.'

Der Lehrer wiederholt die Regel. 'The teacher repeats the rule.'

Since inseparable verbs are of ancient origin, the connection between verb and prefix is indivisible. In some instances, the simple verb has been lost, and only the compound with an unstressed prefix has survived, e.g. geschehen, verlieren, etc.

3.132 Weak Verbs

Weak (regular, normal, t-verbs) (schwache, regelmäßige Verben) are an open, productive, huge class in English and German. Any new verb added to either language can be predicted to be weak. Many originally strong verbs (3.133; 1.52) have become weak (e.g. OE helpan-halp-hulpon-holpen, NE 'help-helped-helped').

Weak verbs never show a stem vowel change and they form their past tense and past participle with a dental suffix: English /-d/, German /-tə-/ and /-t/ respectively. This dental suffix is of Germanic origin and is characteristic of Germanic languages (1.34). However, the origin of this dental suffix is highly disputed by scholars. One theory ascribes the dental suffix to the combination of verb stem with a form of 'to;' theoretically 'talk he did > he talked.'

Because the weak verbs follow a predictable pattern in their inflection, they are easy to learn.

3.133 Strong Verbs

Strong (irregular, n-verbs) (starke, ablautende, unregelmäßige Verben) verbs form their past and past participle with a stem vowel change called ablaut (instead of the dental suffix of weak verbs; 3.132), due to an Indo-European alternation of pitch and stress (1.34). Although the vowel alternations are an Indo-European phenomenon, the Germanic languages systematized them for the formation of the tenses and moods of strong verbs.

Since the strong verbs are of ancient origin and denote the most basic activities and conditions of human life, they are used with great frequency. Their number, however, is small; Duden-Grammatik (1973) lists 173 verbs whose past participle ends in /-(ə)n/ and which have no fluctuation between weak and strong forms (e.g., melken-melkte-gemolken). Disregarding archaic verbs, which would not occur in textbooks (which introduce on the average 95 verbs), a total of 155 strong verbs can be considered in active modern German use, without counting sein and werden (3.136).

In English, the division between weak and strong verbs is not always clear-cut. English has about 90 verbs with stem vowel change, many of which also have a dental suffix, e.g., 'sleep-slept-slept.' Many English strong verbs also have weak forms, e.g., 'dive-dove/dived-dived.'

The following list gives 155 German strong verbs in alphabetical order with the principal parts: infinitive (and present indicative if there is umlaut in the er- and

du-forms of verbs with stem vowel -a->-ä- and -e->-i(e)-; 1.422), simple past, and past participle. English strong cognates are given; weak cognates appear in parentheses. The gloss indicates divergent meanings.

#	INFINITIVE	PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	ENGLISH COGNATE	ENGLISH MEANING
1	befehlen	befiehlt	befahl	befohlen		'command'
2	befleißen		befliß	beflissen		'apply (oneself)'
3	beginnen		begann	begonnen	begin	
4	beißen		biß	gebissen	bite	
5	bergen	birgt	barg	geborgen		'conceal'
6	bersten	birst	barst	geborsten	(burst)	'break'
7	bewegen		bewog	bewogen	(weigh)	'persuade'
8	biegen		bog	gebogen	(bow)	'bend'
9	bieten		bot	geboten	(bid)	'offer'
10	binden		band	gebunden	bind	
11	bitten		bat	gebeten	(bid)	'request'
12	blasen	bläst	blies	geblasen	(bleat)	'blow'
13	bleiben		blieb	geblieben	leave	'remain'
14	bleichen		blich	geblichen	bleach	
15	braten	brät	briet	gebraten		'fry'
16	brechen	bricht	brach	gebrochen	break	
17	dreschen	drischt	drosch	gedroschen	thresh	
18	dringen		drang	gedrungen		'urge'
19	empfehlen	empfiehlt	empfahl	empfohlen		'recommend'
20	erschrecken	erschrickt	erschrak	erschrocken		'frighten'
21	essen	ißt	aß	gegessen	eat	
22	fahren	fährt	fuhr	gefahren	(fare)	'travel'
23	fallen	fällt	fiel	gefallen	fall	
24	fangen	fängt	fing	gefangen		'catch'
25	fechten	ficht	focht	gefochten	fight	'fence'
26	finden		fand	gefunden	find	
27	flechten	flicht	flocht	geflochten	(plait)	'braid'
28	fliegen		flog	geflogen	fly	
29	fliehen		floh	geflohen	flee	
30	fließen		floß	geflossen	fleet	'flow'
31	fressen	frißt	fraß	gefressen	(fret)	'devour'
32	frieren		fror	gefroren	freeze	

#	INFINITIVE	PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	ENGLISH COGNATE	ENGLISH MEANING
33	gären		gor	gegoren		'ferment'
34	gebären		gebar	geboren	bear	
35	geben	gibt	gab	gegeben	give	
36	gedeihen		gedieh	gediehen		'thrive'
37	gehen		ging	gegangen	go	
38	gelingen		gelang	gelungen		'succeed'
39	gelten	gilt	galt	gegolten	(yield)	'be valid'
40	genesen		genaß	genesen		'recuperate'
41	genießen		genoß	genossen		'enjoy'
42	geschehen	geschieht	geschah	geschehen		'happen'
43	gewinnen		gewann	gewonnen	win	
44	gießen		goß	gegossen	get	
45	gleichen		glich	geglichen	(liken)	'be similar'
46	gleiten		glitt	geglitten	(glide)	'slide'
47	glimmen		glomm	geglommen	glimmer	
48	graben	gräbt	grub	gegraben	((en)grave)	'dig'
49	greifen		griff	gegriffen	(grip, grope)	'grab'
50	halten	hält	hielt	gehalten	hold	
51	hängen		hing	gehangen	hang	
52	heben		hob	gehoben	(heave)	'lift'
53	heißen		hieß	geheißen		'be named'
54	helfen	hilft	half	geholfen	help	
55	klimmen		klomm	geklommen	(climb)	
56	klingen		klang	geklungen	(clink)	'sound'
57	kneifen		kniff	gekniffen	(knife)	'pinch'
58	kommen		kam	gekommen	come	
59	kriechen		kroch	gekrochen		'creep, crawl'
60	küren		kor	gekoren	choose	
61	laden	lädt	lud	geladen	(lade)	'invite, load'
62	lassen	läßt	ließ	gelassen	let	
63	laufen	läuft	lief	gelaufen	(leap)	'run'
64	leiden		litt	gelitten		'suffer'
65	leihen		lieh	geliehen	(loan)	'lend'
66	lesen	liest	las	gelesen		'read'
67	liegen		lag	gelegen	lie	'repose'

#	INFINITIVE	PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	ENGLISH COGNATE	ENGLISH MEANING
68	lügen		log	gelogen	(lie)	'speak untruth'
69	meiden		mied	gemieden		'avoid'
70	messen	mißt	maß	gemessen	(mete)	'measure'
71	nehmen	nimmt	nahm	genommen		'take'
72	pfeifen		pfiff	gepfiffen	(pipe)	'whistle'
73	preisen		pries	gepriesen	praise	
74	quellen	quillt	quoll	gequollen	(well)	
75	raten	rät	riet	geraten	read	'guess, advise'
76	reiben		rieb	gerieben	rub	
77	reißen		riß	gerissen	write	'tear, scratch'
78	reiten		ritt	geritten	ride	
79	riechen		roch	gerochen	(reek)	'smell'
80	ringen		rang	gerungen	ring	'wrestle'
81	rinnen		rann	geronnen	run	'flow, trickle'
82	rufen		rief	gerufen	(rap)	'call'
83	saufen	säuft	soff	gesoffen	(sup)	'drink much'
84	saugen	säugt	sog	gesogen	(suck)	'absorb, suck'
85	schaffen		schuf	geschaffen	(shape)	'create'
86	scheiden		schied	geschieden	(shed)	'leave, divorce'
87	scheinen		schien	geschienen	shine	'seem'
88	scheißen		schiß	geschissen	shit	
89	schelten	schilt	schalt	gescholten	scold	
90	scheren		schor	geschoren	shear	
91	schieben		schob	geschoben	(shove)	'push'
92	schießen		schoß	geschossen	shoot	
93	schlafen	schläft	schlief	geschlafen	sleep	
94	schlagen	schlägt	schlug	geschlagen	slay	'strike, beat'
95	schleichen		schlich	geschlichen	(slick)	'sneak'
96	schleifen		schliff	geschliffen	(slip)	'polish, sharpen'
97	schleißen		schliß	geschlissen	slit	
98	schließen		schloß	geschlossen		'lock, close'
99	schlingen		schlang	geschlungen	sling	
100	schmelzen	schmilzt	schmolz	geschmolzen	melt	
101	schneiden		schnitt	geschnitten		'cut'

#	INFINITIVE	PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	ENGLISH COGNATE	ENGLISH MEANING
102	schreiben		schrieb	geschrieben	(scribe)	'write'
103	schreien		schrie	geschrien		'scream'
104	schweigen		schwieg	geschwiegen		'be silent'
105	schwellen	schwillt	schwoll	geschwollen	swell	
106	schwimmen		schwamm	geschwommen	swim	
107	schwinden		schwand	geschwunden		'decrease'
108	schwingen		schwang	geschwungen	swing	
109	schwören		schwor	geschworen	swear	
110	sehen	sieht	sah	gesehen	see	
111	sieden		sott	gesotten	(seethe)	'boil'
112	singen		sang	gesungen	sing	
113	sinken		sank	gesunken	sink	
114	sinnen		sann	gesonnen		'think'
115	sitzen		saß	gesessen	sit	
116	speien		spie	gespien	(spew)	'spit'
117	spinnen		spann	gesponnen	spin	
118	sprechen	spricht	sprach	gesprochen	speak	
119	sprießen		sproß	gesprossen	sprout	
120	springen		sprang	gesprungen	spring	'jump'
121	stechen	sticht	stach	gestochen	stick	'sting'
122	stehen		stand	gestanden	stand	
123	stehlen	stiehlt	stahl	gestohlen	steal	
124	steigen		stieg	gestiegen		'climb'
125	sterben	stirbt	starb	gestorben	(starve)	'die'
126	stieben		stob	gestoben		'disperse'
127	stinken		stank	gestunken	stink	
128	stoßen	stößt	stieß	gestoßen		'push'
129	streichen		strich	gestrichen	strike	'spread, stroke'
130	streiten		stritt	gestritten	stride	'fight, quarrel'
131	tragen	trägt	trug	getragen	draw	'carry'
132	treffen	trifft	traf	getroffen		'meet'
133	treiben		trieb	getrieben	drive	
134	treten	tritt	trat	getreten	tread	'step'
135	triefen		troff	getroffen	drip	

#	INFINITIVE	PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE	ENGLISH COGNATE	MEANING
136	trinken		trank	getrunken	drink	
137	trügen		trog	getrogen		'deceive'
138	tun		tat	getan	do	
139	verderben	verdirbt	verdarb	verdorben		'spoil'
140	verdrießen		verdroß	verdrossen		'displease'
141	vergessen	vergißt	vergaß	vergessen	forget	
142	verlieren		verlor	verloren	lose	
143	wachsen	wächst	wuchs	gewachsen	(wax)	'grow'
144	waschen	wäscht	wusch	gewaschen	wash	
145	weben		wob	gewoben	weave	
146	weichen		wich	gewichen		'yield'
147	weisen		wies	gewiesen		'show, direct'
148	werben	wirbt	warb	geworben		'recruit, woo'
149	werfen	wirft	warf	geworfen	(warp)	'throw'
150	wiegen		wog	gewogen	weigh	
151	winden		wand	gewunden	wind	
152	wringen		wrang	gewrungen	wring	
153	zeihen		zieh	geziehen		'accuse'
154	ziehen		zog	gezogen	(tow, tug)	'pull'
155	zwingen		zwang	gezwungen	(twinge)	'force'

Alphabetical lists are given for the purpose of reference, but they are not a pedagogical tool. Many textbooks do not classify strong verbs but they list them alphabetically. However, these lists frequently include mixed verbs (3.135) and auxiliaries (3.136), which cancels distinctions between the formal classes of verb types made during the learning process.

Classification for pedagogical purposes as well as for linguistic descriptions is difficult, since modern German strong verbs display a seemingly great variety.

In historical Germanic grammar (1.34), the strong verbs could be grouped into seven classes based on the stem vowel alternations and surrounding consonants. The principal forms indicating vowel alternations were the infinitive, simple past singular, simple past plural, and past participle. As an example, the Old High German and Old English class IIIa, signaled by a nasal plus consonant after the vowel, is shown below:

INFINITIVE	PAST SINGULAR	PAST PLURAL	PAST PARTICIPLE
OHG bintan	bant	buntum	gibuntan
OE bindan	band	bundon	bunden

The only English verb which still exhibits a distinction between past singular and past plural is 'was-were.' In German, the poetical singular form ward belongs to the plural wurden (infinitive werden: 3.164). The modal verbs display a singular and plural distinction in the present tense, which once was a past tense, e.g. kann-können (3.1351). Another remnant of the past plural is found in the general subjunctive (3.163) of a few verbs, e.g. sterben-starb-gestorben, which is stürbe, derived from the past plural form, OHG sturbum. All other verbs have completely lost the distinction between singular and plural vowel of the simple past.

The modern German strong verbs no longer fit neatly into the seven historical classes because of numerous phonological and analogical changes (1.52). The great variety of infinitive vowels does not afford predictability of whether a verb is weak or strong, since many weak verbs rhyme with strong verbs in the infinitive, e.g., leiten (weak)-reiten (strong), lieben-schieben, fragen-tragen and stellen-quellen. In English, only some verbs can be predicted as strong, e.g., 'eat-ate-eaten' = essen-aß-gegessen.

The following chart summarizes 150 strong verbs in five classes, arranged according to their size and designated by the infinitive stem vowel. The following verbs do not fit any of the patterns and are therefore not included:

gehen-ging-gegangen 'to go'
stehen-stand-gestanden 'to stand'
hängen-hing-gehangen 'to hang'
kommen-kam-gekommen 'to come'
tun-tat-getan 'to do'

The chart indicates whether umlaut occurs in the er- and du-forms of the present tense and the number of verbs in each class. Because students have learned graphemic signals of vowel length prior to encountering the various tenses, vowel quantity is not indicated here, except in the case of long i, spelled ie.

<table>
<tr><th>CLASS</th><th>INFINIT.</th><th>er/du PRES.</th><th>SIMPLE PAST</th><th>PAST PART.</th><th>RULE</th><th>EXAMPLE</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">IE</td><td rowspan="4">49 i(e)</td><td rowspan="4"></td><td>24 o</td><td rowspan="2">30 o</td><td></td><td>frieren</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">25 a</td><td>before mm, nn</td><td>rinnen</td></tr>
<tr><td>16 u</td><td>before nasal + consonant</td><td>singen</td></tr>
<tr><td>3 e</td><td></td><td>liegen</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">E</td><td rowspan="3">38 e</td><td rowspan="3">32 i(e)</td><td>10 o</td><td rowspan="2">28 o</td><td></td><td>fechten</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">28 a</td><td>before r, l, m, after r</td><td>sterben</td></tr>
<tr><td>10 e</td><td></td><td>sehen</td></tr>
<tr><td>EI</td><td>35 ei</td><td></td><td>35 i(e)</td><td>35 i(e)</td><td>i short before t/d>tt, s>ss/ß, f>ff</td><td>reiten</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">A</td><td rowspan="2">16 a</td><td rowspan="2">15 ä</td><td>8 ie</td><td rowspan="2">16 a</td><td rowspan="2"></td><td>fallen</td></tr>
<tr><td>8 u</td><td>fahren</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="9">MIXED</td><td>3 ü</td><td rowspan="2"></td><td rowspan="4">7 o</td><td rowspan="6">9 o</td><td rowspan="9"></td><td>lügen</td></tr>
<tr><td>1 ö</td><td>schwören</td></tr>
<tr><td>2 au</td><td>2 äu</td><td>saufen</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">2 ä</td><td rowspan="2"></td><td>gären</td></tr>
<tr><td>1 a</td><td>gebären</td></tr>
<tr><td>1 o</td><td>1 ö</td><td rowspan="4">4 ie</td><td>stoßen</td></tr>
<tr><td>1 u</td><td rowspan="2"></td><td>1 u</td><td>rufen</td></tr>
<tr><td>1 ei</td><td>1 ei</td><td>heißen</td></tr>
<tr><td>1 au</td><td>1 äu</td><td>1 au</td><td>laufen</td></tr>
</table>

As can be seen in the preceding chart, predictability of the pattern of vowel alternation is difficult based on the infintive stem with its variety of vowels. Nevertheless, the infinitive is considered the base form. A much shorter classification could be based on the vowel of the simple past tense, but in teaching practice this would necessitate the introduction of narrative texts in the past tense before practicing speaking in the conversational present tense.

However, since the majority of strong verbs can be classified according to a limited number of patterns, learning can be eased. Introduction of those verbs whose pattern occurs only once or twice and which are summarized in the mixed class can be delayed until after the major groups have been mastered.

The minor consonantal changes which occur in some strong verbs do not cause teaching problems as they pertain to vowel length, which is determined by the structure of the syllable. Orthographic variation between <ß> and <ss> (beißen-biß-gebissen), double consonants after short vowels or simplification of double consonants after long vowels (kommen-kam-gekommen) become obvious after othography has been discussed (2.6ff).

One consonantal alternation exists which can only be explained by the historical development of the language: ziehen-zog-gezogen and schneiden-schnitt-geschnitten. These verbs display reflexes of Verner's Law (1.32).

3.134 Verbs with Weak and Strong Forms

A few verbs have weak and strong tense forms associated with the same infinitive, similar to English 'hang-hanged-hanged' and 'hang-hung-hung.' As causative verbs (3.132), the weak verb of the pair indicates 'to make someone do something' and is therefore transitive (3.332), while the strong verb is intransitive and denotes the result of the action indicated by the strong verb.

erschrecken-erschreckte-hat...erschreckt
Der Hund erschreckte das Kind. 'The dog startled the child.'
erschrecken-erschrak-ist...erschrocken
Das Kind ist vor dem Hund erschrocken.
('The child has been frightened by the dog')

The other verb in this category is hängen-hängte-gehängt and hängen-hing-gehangen.

Another group of verbs has weak or strong forms, depending on the meaning:

bewegen-bewegte-bewegt 'to move something, to be moved emotionally'
bewegen-bewog-bewogen 'to intreat'

schaffen-schaffte-geschafft 'to accomplish, manage, complete'

schaffen-schuf-geschaffen 'to create (a work of art, a condition)'

senden-sendete-gesendet 'to transmite on TV, radio'
senden-sandte-gesandt 'to send by mail, to delegate'

schleifen-schleifte-geschleift 'to drag (over a surface)'
schleifen-schliff-geschliffen 'to sharpen, cut a gem'

wenden-wendete-gewendet 'to turn something'
wenden-wandte-gewandt 'to turn to'

wiegen-wiegte-gewiegt 'to cradle'
wiegen-wog-gewogen 'to weigh'

3.135 Mixed Verbs

The group of mixed verbs (irregular weak; weak-strong; hybrid) (gemischte Verben) comprises eight verbs which have a stem vowel change but employ the dental suffix for tense formation. The mixed verbs are brennen, kennen, nennen, rennen, senden, wenden, bringen and denken. They are inflected just like weak verbs except that their stem vowel changes to -a- in the simple past tense and in the past participle: brannte, gebrannt. The Germanic infinitive of this mixed verb was *brannjan, in which the j caused umlaut (1.33; 3.11), while the past and past participle did not have umlaut. This phenomenon is known by the misnomer Rückumlaut 'unmutation' (1.52).

In addition, senden and wenden do not have the phonologically determined inclusion of /ə/ before the tense marker (3.141): sandte, gesandt. Both verbs also have a weak form: senden-sendete-gesendet (3.134).

The verbs bringen and denken display, like their English cognates 'bring-brought,' and 'thing-thought,' the loss of nasal as well as spirantization of the stops (1.33) in their simple past and past participle: bringen-brachte-gebracht.

3.1351 Modal Verbs and wissen

The modal verbs (<Latin modus 'manner, mode, mood') (Modalverben) are können, mögen, müssen, sollen and dürfen. The term 'modal' applies to their semantic function. A term describing their origin is 'preterite-presents' (Präterito-Präsentia), indicating the fact that these verbs (except wollen 'want') and their English cognates 'can,' 'may,' 'must' and 'shall' are derived from a past tense which has assumed present tense meaning. For this reason, the inflectional morphemes are those of the past (set 2; 3.42) and the stem vowel differs in singular and plural (except sollen 'shall') (3.133).

The past tense, konnte, mochte, mußte, sollte, wollte and durfte was formed during the MHG period in analogy to weak verbs, as was the past participle gekonnt, gemocht, gemußt, gesollt, gewollt and gedurft (3.171; 1.52).

The verb wissen is not a modal, although it has the same origin and characteristics. It is cognate to Greek 'I have seen; therefore I know.' Its singular present stem is weiß, the past wußte and past participle gewußt.

The modal verbs can function as main verbs (3.2233), and in the present and past perfect, the past participle is used:

Er hat das schon lange gekonnt.
'He has been able (to do that) for a long time.

However, if the modals function as modifiers of other verbs which stand in the infinitive at the end of the clause, the modals have no past participle, but an apparent infinitive in the compound tenses (3.171):

Er hat es nicht aussprechen können.
'He has not been able to pronounce it.'

In a subordinate clause (5.3ff), the finite verb in this instance is not at the end, but precedes the two infinitives:

...weil er es nicht hat aussprechen können.
'..because he has not been able to pronounce it.'

Teaching problems arise from the defective tense system of English modals, which make a translation difficult. English has only the present tense forms 'can,' 'may,' 'must,' 'shall,' and 'will,' while the simple past forms have become ambiguous as expressions of the subjunctive: 'could,' 'might,' 'should,' and 'would.' 'Must' does not have a past tense form; instead, analytic expressions, such as 'be/was/has been able to' are used for 'can.' Students are frequently not aware of that defective tense system of the English modals, and extensive practice is necessary (3.223-3.2235).

The verb kennen and the modal können are frequently confused because of their similarity; here again practice is necessary. Both kennen and wissen translate as English 'to know,' but they differ syntactically. Kennen is a transitive verb which requires a nominal direct object in most instances, e.g., Er kennt Deutschland gut. In contrast, wissen is followed by a pronoun or a subordinate clause with the function of a direct object: Wir wissen (es) nicht, ob er Deutschland gut kennt (3.341; 5.3ff).

3.136 Auxiliaries

As in English, haben is a weak verb which loses the stem-final consonant in some forms (cf 'thou hast, he has, had'). In German, the same forms show this syncope (3.142): du hast, er hat, hatte. All other forms are regular.

As in English 'to be,' the inflection of sein is composed of different stems: a stem with b-: ich bin, du bist; English 'be, been' (<IE *bheu-) and a stem with s-: er ist sei, wir sind, ihr seid; English 'is' (<IE*s-/se-).

All other forms are taken from a strong verb which no longer exists as an independent verb: OHG wesan-was-wārum-giwesan 'to be,' providing the forms of the past indicative as well as the subjunctive II and the past participle: war, wäre, gewesen. In English, the OE verb was wesan-was-wæron-wesen, giving 'was-were.' The noun 'being, existence' s Wesen is also derived from that lost verb.

Werden is a strong verb of class IIIb (1.422), OHG werdan-ward-wurdum-giwordan. The poetical form ward (ich-/er-form pres ind) is comparable to English 'was-were,' in which the leveling of sg and pl past is not completed (1.52). Modern German employs the stem wurd- for the past: ich/er wurde. The -e ending is not historical (cf ich/er gab-); its origin is a hypercorrection in analogy to weak verbs (3.132), frequently used by Luther (1.61).

In the present tense, the stem-final -d is lost in the du- form: du wirst; in the er-form, the stem-final -d merges with the dental ending: er wird. All other forms are regular. When werden functions as the auxiliary of the passive voice (3.18ff), the past participle has no ge-: worden.

3.14 Inventory of Verbal Morphemes

In modern English and German, the inventory of verbal morphemes is very small. Three types of such verbal morphemes should be distinguished:

Verbal inflectional endings, e.g. /-t/, in the -er-form of the present tense indicative;

Tense and mood markers, e.g. /-tə-/ in weak verbs and stem vowel changes determined by ablaut /~/ for strong verbs, both of which indicate the simple past tense indicative;

Non-finite morphemes, e.g. /-t/, in the past participle of weak verbs (3.15).

If these verbal morphemes are distinguished from one another, descriptions of the German verb morphology are greatly simplified in comparison to long paradigms.

3.141 Inflectional Endings

Traditional paradigmatic description of German verbs used to present the verbs in a certain sequence of personal pronouns, namely ich, du, er/sie/es; wir, ihr, sie. Since the wir- and sie-forms of each verb (but sein) are identical and in the present tense they are the same as the infinitive, it is clearer to present the sequence thus:

plural:	sie (Sie)	singular:	er/es/sie
	wir		ich
	ihr		du

This sequence immediately generates two verb forms when the infinitive is known, and it places er/es/sie in a position of importance, as pronouns corresponding with the definite article, the der-determiner (4.151).

German has only 1 1/3 sets of inflectional endings which are denoted in the following as Set 1 and Set 2:

<table>
<tr><th>NUMBER</th><th>PERSON</th><th>SET 1</th><th>SET 2</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">PLURAL</td><td>sie (Sie)</td><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">/-n/</td></tr>
<tr><td>wir</td></tr>
<tr><td>ihr</td><td colspan="2">/-t/</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">SINGULAR</td><td>er/es/sie</td><td>/-t</td><td rowspan="2">/---/</td></tr>
<tr><td>ich</td><td>/-ə/</td></tr>
<tr><td>du</td><td colspan="2">/-st/</td></tr>
</table>

These inflectional endings of verbs are correlated with tense and mood markers.

3.142 Tense and Mood Markers

There are only four tense and mood markers:

(1) /-¨-/ Umlaut of the stem vowel, which occurs in the present indicative of 51 strong verbs (3.133), and in the general subjunctive of strong, mixed, and modal verbs.

(2) /~/ Ablaut of strong verbs in their past indicative (3.133). The past tense stem with umlaut is also the stem of the general subjunctive of strong verbs.

(3) /-tə-/ Suffix of weak, mixed, and modal verbs to form the past indicative. The general subjunctive of weak verbs is not distinguishable from the past indicative: the mixed and modal verbs form the general subjunctive with the addition of umlaut.

(4) /-ə-/ Suffix, as the marker of the subjunctive of all verbs. Because the /-tə-/ suffix of the past indicative merged with the subjunctive suffix /-ə-/, the general subjunctive of weak verbs is not distinguishable.

These four tense and mood markers are combined with the verbal inflectional endings (3.141) for the inflection of verbs for person, number, tense and mood (3.12):

TENSE MOOD	VERB TYPE	MARKER		ENDING	EXAMPLE
PRES. INDIC.	weak	stem		SET 1	er sag-t
	mixed				er bring-t
	strong	stem: er-/du-form	/-¨-/ 32 e>i(e) 15 a>ä 3 au>äu 1 o>ö		er gib-t er fähr-t er läuf-t er stöß-t
	modal	stem sg change		SET 2	er kann-
SIMPLE PAST INDIC.	weak	stem	+ /-tə-/		er sag-te-
	mixed	stem>a			er brach-te-
	modal	stem minus umlaut			er konn-te-
	strong	stem vowel change	/~/		er fuhr-
SPEC. SUBJ.	all	stem	+ /-ə-/		er sag-e-
GEN. SUBJ.	weak	stem	+ /-tə-/		(er sag-te-)
	mixed	past stem + umlaut	/-¨-/ + /-tə-/		er bräch-te-
	modal				er könn-te-
	strong		/~/ + /-¨-/ + /-ə-/		er führ-e-

This summary generalizes the inflection of German verbs; only a few exceptions must be mentioned: The modal sollen never has a stem vowel change, and both sollen and wollen have no umlaut. The simple past of mögen is mochte–. In the past, the mixed verbs bringen and denken reflect the historical loss of nasal as well as spirantization of stops (1.33). The mixed verbs with -enn- in the stem have the apparent infinitive vowel in the general subjunctive (3.135). No general subjunctive is formed for senden and wenden.

There is one additional inflected verb form; i.e. the imperative (3.165).

Verbs inflected as described above are called finite (conjugated) verb forms (<Latin finitus 'ended, limited') (finite, konjugierte, gebeugte Verbform). The finite verb is the most important constituent of the predicate (3.31ff) and of the verb phrase.

As shown in the charts above, no paradigms are necessary to show the apparent variety of verbal inflection. Vertical paradigmatic learning of forms in fixed sequences does not reflect the horizontal dynamic character of syntactic relations.

The further one searches back into the history of the German language, the more variety he will find in the inflectional morphemes. The few morphemes existing today are the result of numerous changes, the most important of which is the weakening and ultimate loss of final unstressed syllables due to Germanic stress (1.31) on the main syllable. Apocope (<Greek apokopē 'cutting off') is the loss of a final sound; syncope (<Greek syncopē 'together + cut') is the loss of a phoneme in the middle of a word or form (e Apokope, e Synkope). Another major factor in language change is analogy (<Greek analogia 'proportion, relation') (e Analogie), the process by which a more frequent and familiar form takes over and renders the less frequent form obsolete.

3.1421 Phonological Conditioning of Verbal Morphemes

The German and English verbal morphemes have allomorphs (2.2) determined by the phonological shape of the end of the stem. For example, English /-s/, the morpheme of the 'he'-form in the present tense, appears as /-s/ after voiceless consonants ('he talks' /tɔks/), but as /-z/ after vowels and voiced consonants ('he loves' /lʌvz/), and as /-əz/ after sibilants ('he smashes' /smæšəz/) (2.31).

Similarly, the German inflectional endings /-n,-t,-st/ and the tense and mood marker /-tə-/, as well as the non-finite morpheme /-t/ of the past participle of weak, mixed and modal verbs (3.15), have allomorphs which are primarily determined by the ease of speaking, by including /-ə-/ between stem and ending.

The inflectional ending /-n/ is /-ən-/ in the wir- and sie-forms when the stem ends with a consonant other than -l or -r (the same holds true for the non-finite morpheme /-n-/ of the infinitie: 3.15), e.g., (wir/sie) sing-e-n vs. ärger-n.

When the stem ends in a dental or a consonant cluster, the inflectional ending /-t/ of the er- and ihr-forms, as well as the ending /-st/ of the du-form, are preceded by a /-ə-/: er/ihr arbeit-e-t, atm-e-t; du arbeit-e-st and segn-e-st. (The following are exceptions: erbarmen, filmen, lernen and qualmen: er erbarm-t sich; du film-st, ihr lern-t and es qualm-t). The same rule applies to the non-finite morpheme /-t/ of the past participle of weak, mixed, and modal verbs (3.15) and to the tense and mood marker /-tə-/ of the past indicative of weak, mixed, modal verbs, e.g.: er arbeit-e-te- and ge-arbeit-e-t.

Merger of stem-final dental with the /-t/ inflectional ending of the present tense er-form occurs in a few verbs

with umlaut: er hält and wird. Similarly, the first part of the /-st/ inflectional ending merges with a stem-final -s or -z: du reis-t, haß-t and tanz-t.

3.15 Non-Finite Forms

Non-finite forms (infinite, unkonjugierte, ungebeugte Verbformen) are those verb forms which do not have inflectional endings (3.141). They are the infinitives and the two participles, which are never inflected for person. The morphemes designating the non-finite forms are:

(1) /-n/	Suffix of the infinitive of all verbs (phonological conditioning: 3.1421).
(2) /gə...-t/	Prefix (except in inseparable verbs: 3.131) and suffix of all weak, mixed, and modal verbs in the past participle.
(3) /gə...-n/	Prefix (except in inseparable verbs: 3.131) and suffix of all strong verbs in the past participle (phonological conditioning: 3.1421).
(4) /-t/ <d>	Suffix added to the infinitive of all verbs to form the present participle.

3.151 Infinitive

The infinitive (<Latin infinitivus 'not ended, not limited') (r Infinitiv, e Nennform) is formed by adding the non-finitive morpheme /n/ to the stem of the verb:

INFINITIVE = verb stem + /-n/ : klingel-n, sag-e-n

(Phonological conditioning: 3.1421)

Infinitives were originally verbal nouns. Any infinitive can still be nominalized (4.12): essen- das Essen. In English, this verbal noun is rendered by the gerund 'the eating.' Some English causative verbs still exhibit the old infinitive morpheme: 'soften, liken, sharpen,' etc.

Based on Latin inflected forms which had various verb stems functioning as base forms for the formation of tenses, two infinitives which provide an easy formula for the formation of German tenses can be distinguished:

(1) Infinitive present active is the base form of the finite verb (present, past tenses, subjunctive, imperative (3.16 ff), e.g., sagen.

(2) Infinitive perfect active is the base form of the compound tenses and moods (3.17ff), the present and past perfect tenses and the subjunctive expressions of the past, e.g., gesagt haben, gefahren sein.

These two infinitives can function as infinitive complements (3.312). If they complement the auxiliary werden,

the future tenses are formed:

Future: werden + infinitive present: Er wird...sagen.
Future perfect: werden + infinitive perfect: Er wird... gesagt haben (3.174, 3.175).

For further discussion, refer to the following sections:

Ininitive complements with modals:	3.2232
Infinitive passive:	3.18
Use of Infinitive:	3.241
Infinitive Constructions:	3.2411; 5.3321

3.152 Past Participle

The past participle (<Latin participium 'participating, partaking') (s zweite Partizip, Mittelwort der Vergangenheit) is formed by attaching the prefix <ge-> to any verb with initial stress. Therefore, no <ge-> occurs on inseparable verbs and on weak verbs ending in -ieren (3.131). The past participle ends with <-t> after the unchanged stem of weak verbs, but with <-(e)n> after the ablauted stem in strong verbs (3.133):

	VERB TYPE		STEM	ENDING	EXAMPLE
PAST PARTICIPLE =	weak	/gə-/		/-t/	: ge-sagt
	strong		ablaut	/-n/	: ge-sung-e-n

The past participle was originally a verbal adjective, and it still functions in both the verb phrase and the noun phrase. Not all verbs formed their past participle with <ge-> in older stages of German; some participles without the prefix survive, e.g., altbacken and willkommen.

In Middle English, the prefix of the same origin was 'i-, i-,' or 'y-,' and it survives in 'handicraft,' 'enough,' and 'every.'

Detailed discussion of the past participle is found in the following sections:

Past participle in passive voice:	3.18ff
Use of past participle:	3.242
Past participle as complement of predicate:	3.313
Past participle in the noun phrase:	4.14ff

3.153 Present Participle

The present participle (s erste Partizip, s Mittelwort der Gegenwart) is formed by adding <-d> to the present infinitive of the verb:

PRESENT PARTICIPLE = Infinitive + <-d>/-t/ : sing-e-n-d

The present participle is used as a complement of the predicate less frequently than its English equivalent, the

'ing' form.

For discussion of present participles, see the sections indicated below:

Present participle as complement of the predicate:	3.314
Use of present participle:	3.243
Present participle in the noun phrase:	4.14ff

3.16 Formation of Simple Tenses and Moods: Active Voice

The simple tenses and moods are the finite inflected verb forms, as shown on the chart in 3.142.

3.161 Present Indicative

Present (<Latin praesens 'to be before') (s Präsens, e Gegenwart) indicative (<Latin indicativus 'pointed out') (r Indikative, e Wirklichkeitsform) is the only expression in German of present time (3.21).

Weak verbs (3.132), mixed verbs (3.135), and 104 strong verbs (3.133) but not modal verbs - all form their present tense by adding the inflectional endings of set 1 (3.141) to the unchanged stem:

pl	sie/Sie, wir	leb-e-n	sg	er/es/sie	bring-t
	ihr	frag-t		ich	schreib-e
				du	geh-st

Umlaut occurs in the er- and du-forms of 51 strong verbs (32 with the stem vowel e(:), 15 with the stem vowel a(:), 3 with au, and 1 with o: 3.133). All other forms are parallel to those of weak verbs.

pl	sie/Sie, wir	seh-e-n	sg	er/es/sie	sieh-t
	ihr	fahr-t		ich	fahr-e
				du	fähr-st

The modal verbs and wissen (3.1351) form their present tense with the inflectional endings of set 2. In addition, witht he exception of sollen, they also have a different stem vowel in the singular forms:

pl	sie/Sie, wir	könn-e-n	müss-e-n	woll-e-n	soll-e-n	dürf-e-n
	ihr	könn-t	müß-t	woll-t	soll-t	dürf-t
sg	er/es/sie, ich	kann	muß-	will-	soll-	darf-
	du	kann-st	muß-t	will-st	soll-st	darf-st

pl	sie/Sie, wir	wiss-e-n	sg	er/es/sie	weiß-
	ihr	wiß-t		ich	weiß-
				du	weiß-t

For a discussion on the use of the present tense, see section 3.211.

3.162 Formation of Simple Past Indicative

The simple past tense is also called 'narrative past.' In German, it is known as s Imperfect (<Latin imperfectum 'not completed') or s Präteritum (<Latin praeteritum 'gone by'), or e erste Vergangenheit.

Weak verbs have /-tə-/ as the past tense marker (3.142). The inflectional endings of set 2 (3.141) are added after the marker:

pl	sie/Sie, wir	tanz-te-n	sg	er/es/sie, ich	frag-te-
	ihr	leb-te-t		du	wohn-te-st

In strong verbs, the inflectional endings of set 2 are attached directly to the stem. Strong verbs have ablaut instead of the dental suffix which occurs in weak verbs (1.33); the list of strong verbs and principal parts is in 3.133.

	Infinitive:	frier-e-n	seh-e-n	greif-e-n	fahr-e-n	stoß-e-n
pl	sie/Sie, wir	fror-e-n	sah-e-n	griff-e-n	fuhr-e-n	stieß-e-n
	ihr	fror-t	sah-t	griff-t	fuhr-t	stieß-t
sg	er/es/sie, ich	fror-	sah-	griff-	fuhr-	stieß-
	du	fror-st	sah-st	griff-st	fuhr-st	stieß-t

In mixed verbs, (3.135) the stem vowel changes -e- to -a-, e.g. brennen-brannte. The verbs senden and wenden do not have the phonologically determined inclusion of /ə/ before the /-tə-/ marker: wand-te- and sand-te- (3.1421); both also have a weak form: wend-e-te-and send-e-te- (3.134). Bringen-brach-te- and denken-dach-te-lose the nasal and the velar stop changes to a spirant (2.31; 1.33) comparable to English 'bring-brought.' Otherwise, the past of mixed verbs is formed in the same manner as for weak verbs.

The modal verbs and wissen (3.1351) have no umlaut in the past tense stem; the past stem of wissen is wuß- and the past stem of mögen is moch-. The past tense is formed in the same way as that of weak verbs:

konn-te-, moch-te-, muß-te-, woll-te-, soll-te-, durf-te-, wuß-te-

Of the three auxiliaries, haben is a weak verb, and it loses the stem-final voiced stop: ha-t-te-.

Sein is a strong verb, and it uses the stem war-.

Only in poetry is the archaic singular for ward used (of werden). The commonly used stem is wurd- which, however, adds a /-ə-/ in the er- and ich-forms (3.136):

pl	sie/Sie, wir	wurd-e-n	sg	er/es/sie, ich	wurd-e
	ihr	wurd-e-t		du	wurd-e-st

See section 3.213 for a more complete discussion of the use of the simple past.

3.163 General Subjunctive

The subjunctive (<Latin subiunctus 'subjoined') (r Konjunktiv, e Möglichkeitsform) mood (<Latin modus 'mode, manner') (r Modus, e Aussageweise) has an incomplete paradigm in modern German, because its /-ə-/-marker (3.141) frequently creates a form identical to the indicative. General subjunctive is also known as 'subjunctive II.'

Weak verbs do not have a form of the general subjunctive which is distinguished from the simple past indicative (3.142). To express the general subjunctive of weak verbs, the subjunctive or werden (würde-) is used: Er würde... sagen 'he would say.'

Strong verbs add the marker /-ə-/ and the endings of set 2 (3.142) to the past indicative stem and have umlaut in 109 verbs with the past tense vowel other than -i(e)- (3.133). The 46 strong verbs which have a past tense stem vowel of -i(e)- have general subjunctive forms identical to the past indicative in the sie- and wir-forms; würde is again used for subjunctive: sie/wir würden...laufen 'they/we would run.'

A few strong verbs of the E-class (3.133) reflect the fact that the general subjunctive was derived from the OHG plural past tense stem (1.423). The singular -a- and the plural -u- were leveled in favor of the singular: sterben-starb. However, the general subjunctive still exists with the OHG past plural vowel: stürbe. Additional verbs showing -ü- instead of the expected -ä- are helfen-hülfe, stehen-stünde, werfen-würfe, werben-würbe, and werden-würde.

Infinitive:		helf-e-n,	seh-e-n,	fahr-e-n,	halt-e-n
pl	sie/Sie wir	hülf-e-n	säh-e-n	führ-e-n	(hielt-e-n)
	ihr	hülf-e-t	säh-e-t	führ-e-t	(hielt-e-t)
sg	er/es/sie ich	hülf-e-	säh-e-	führ-e-	hielt-e-
	du	hülf-e-st	säh-e-st	führ-e-st	(hielt-e-st)

Of the mixed verbs brennen, kennen, nennen and rennen, the general subjunctive is not formed from the past tense stem kann-te- but from an apparent regular weak form, kenn-te- (3.135). However, these forms are frequently replaced by a compound verb form such as würde...kennen. Bringen and denken have umlaut on the past tense: bräch-te- and däch-te-. Senden and wenden have no subjunctive forms.

The modal verbs have umlaut (except wollen and sollen, which cannot form a subjunctive distinct from the past indicative): könn-te-, möch-te-, dürf-te-, müß-te- and wüß-te-.

The use of the general subjunctive is discussed in sections 3.224-3.2244 and 5.3346.

3.164 Special Subjunctive

The special subjunctive is also known as 'subjunctive I,' 'quotative,' or 'indirect discourse subjunctive.' (r Konjunktiv I).

Weak, strong and mixed verbs (3.131-3.135) add the /-ə-/-marker to the unchanged infinitive stem; the inflectional endings of set 2 are used (3.141). Because many of these subjunctive forms are identical to the present indicative tense, they cannot be recognized as subjuncive; they are given below in parentheses:

Infinitive:	sag-e-n,	halt-e-n,	fahr-e-n,	renn-e-n,	könn-e-n
pl sie/Sie	(sag-e-n)	(halt-e-n)	(fahr-e-n)	(renn-e-n)	(könn-e-n)
wir					
ihr	sag-e-t	(halt-et)	fahr-e-t	renn-e-t	könn-e-t
sg er/es/sie	sag-e	halt-e-	fahr-e-	renn-e-	könn-e-
ich	(sag-e-)	(halt-e-)	(fahr-e-)	(renn-e-)	könn-e-
du	sag-e-st	halt-e-st	fahr-e-st	renn-e-st	könn-e-st

The only form which is consistently distinct from the present tense is the er-form. In the ich-form, only the modals and wissen have a distinct special subjunctive. The ihr- and du-forms are only visible as subjunctive when the verb stem ends in a consonant other than a dental (3.1421). The sie- and wir-forms are never distinguishable as special subjunctive forms.

The special subjunctive of haben and werden is formed as above hab-e- and werd-e-. The auxiliary sein has no /-ə-/-marker in the singular: er/ich sei-, du sei-st, but sie/wir sei-e-n, ihr sei-e-t.

The use of the special subjunctive is discussed in sections 3.225-3.2252.

3.165 Imperative

The imperative (<Latin imperativus 'commanded') (r Imperativ, e Befehlsform) distinguishes between a familiar and a formal form, depending on the address (sg du, pl ihr for family, friends, animals, deity: Sie in singular and plural for all others).

The familiar imperative singular is derived from the infinitive stem plus /-ə/ which, however, is frequently deleted in colloquial speech: geh(e)! sag(e)! The /-ə/ is not deleted in verbs ending with -d, -t or -ig: arbeit-e! bad-e! and entschuldig-e!

Strong verbs which have of -e->-i(e)- in the du-form of the present indicative (of which there are 32; 3.133) have the stem with umlaut with no ending: gib-! lies-!

The familiar plural imperative uses the ihr-form of the present indicative: Geb-t! and sag-t! Neither familiar form is used with a personal pronoun.

The formal imperative is identical to the present indicative, except that the personal pronoun is necessary

after the verb form: geb-e-n Sie!

	FAMILIAR	FORMAL	FAMILIAR	FORMAL
SG	---/-ə/ -i(e)-/-/	---/n/ Sie	schreib-e! gib-! lies-!	schreib-e-n Sie!
PL	---/-t/		schreib-t!	

The imperative forms of sein are: sei! seid, seien Sie!

Separable verbs (3.131) have the prefix at the end of the clause: Fahre......ab!

For further discussion of the use of the imperative, see sections 3.226 and 5.211.

3.17 Formation of Compound Tenses and Moods, Active Voice

3.171 Present Perfect Indicative

The present perfect (<Latin perfectum 'completed') (s Perfekt, e zweite Vergangenheit), or 'conversational past,' is formed as follows:

PRESENT PERFECT = present of haben or sein + past participle

The position of the past participle is at the end of the clause:

Er hat nach der Freundin gefragt. 'He asked about the friend.'

The teaching of the perfect tense does not cause any problems, since it is parallel to English, especially in the use of haben:

haben is used with all transitive verbs (3.341), whether or not the direct (accusative) object is expressed. Many intransitive verbs, particularly those denoting a duration of action or circumstance, also use haben:
Wir haben gestern im Park gessen.[1] 'We sat in the park yesterday.'

sein is used with intranstiive verbs which denote
(1) A change of state e.g.: verschwinden 'vanish,' sterben 'die,' and erfrieren 'freeze.'
Er ist erfroren. 'He froze (to death).'

(2) A change of place or a motion from one place to another, e.g.: fahren 'travel,' eilen 'hurry,' and gehen 'go.'
Er ist über die Straße geeilt. 'He hurried across the street.'

---

[1] The southern German dialects use sitzen, stehen and liegen with sein: Wir sind im Park gesessen.

3.171

Sein is also used with the following verbs: sein, werden, and bleiben:

Letzte Woche ist er krank gewesen. 'Last week he was sick.'
Das Wetter ist schön geworden. 'The weather turned nice.'
Sie sind gern bei ihm geblieben. 'They liked to stay with him.'

The forms with sein must be practiced extensively to avoid the wrong use of haben, which appears natural to English-speaking students.

Some verbs can express an action as well as a change of state or place. If an action is expressed, the verb is transitive and the perfect is formed with haben; if a change of state or place is expressed, the perfect is formed with sein:

Wir sind nach Hamburg geflogen. 'We flew to Hamburg.'
Der Pilot hat das Flugzeug geflogen. 'The pilot flew the plane.'

Modal verbs can function as main verbs; their past participles are formed like those of weak verbs (without umlaut). They always take haben (3.1351):

Er hat das nicht gekonnt. 'He was not able (to do) it.'

If modals function as modifiers of other verbs, their perfect is formed with an apparent infinitive instead of past participle:

Er hat es nicht aussprechen können.
'He was not able to pronounce it.'

In a subordinate clause (5.3ff) haben with the 'double infinitive' precedes the two infinitives:

...weil er es nicht hat aussprechen können.

If the verbs hören, sehen, lassen or brauchen (the latter with zu) are together with another infinitive (accusative+infinitive construction), the perfect is also formed with two infinitives:

Wir haben sie kommen sehen. 'We saw them come.'

These constructions must be practiced, since there is no equivalent in English.

3.172 Past Perfect Indicative

The past perfect (pluperfect<Latin plus quam perfectum 'more than completed') (s Plusquamperfekt, e dritte Vergangenheit) is formed as follows:

PAST PERFECT = Simple past of haben or sein + past participle

It is identical to the present perfect, except that the auxiliaries are in the simple past:

Er hatte sie danach gefragt. 'He had inquired about it.'
Er war lange gefahren. 'He had traveled a long time.'

3.173 Future Indicative

The future tense (<Latin futurus 'about to be') (s Futur, e Zukunft) is formed as follows:

FUTURE = present tense of werden + infinitive present

The infinitive (3.151) stands at the end of the clause:

Wir werden ihn nicht mehr sehen. 'We will not see him any more.'

In most cases, the future tense is not used when a time modifier (3.214) or the context indicates that the action will take place at a future time. The present tense is used instead:

Wir sehen ihn nicht mehr.

Frequently, an assumption or supposition is expressed by the future tense with a mood modifier (3.222) such as wohl, vielleicht, wahrscheinlich:

Wir werden ihn wohl nicht mehr sehen. 'We'll probably not see him any more.'

These assumptions are discussed in 3.2231.

3.174 Future Perfect Indicative

The future perfect tense (s zweite Futur, e Vorzukunft) is formed as follows:

FUTURE PERFECT = present tense of werden + infinitive perfect

The infinitive perfect (3.151) stands at the end of the clause:

Er wird das Buch bald ausgelesen haben.
'He will have finished reading the book soon.'

As a future tense, this construction is rarely used, except when great emphasis is placed on the completion of an action at a future time. Otherwise, the future perfect is used for assumptions, as discussed in 3.2231.

3.175 Compound Tenses in the Subjunctive Mood

An action or state occuring at a past time can only be expressed in the subjunctive mood through a compound tense:

INDICATIVE TENSE	GENERAL SUBJUNCTIVE	SPECIAL SUBJUNCTIVE
SIMPLE PAST PRES. PERFECT PAST PERFECT	General subjunctive of haben/sein + past part: Er hätte...gesehen Er wäre...gefahren	Special subjunctive of haben/sein + past part: Er habe...gesehen Er sei...gefahren

The future tenses of the special subjunctive are formed by special subjunctive of werden plus infinitive (3.151):

Er werde...kommen. Er werde...gekommen sein.

Since the general subjunctive of werden (i.e. würde) functions as the indicator of that subjunctive, the future in the general subjunctive is not understood as such and is, therefore, rarely used.

For a complete discussion of the compound tenses in subjunctive, see sections 3.224-3.225.

3.18 Formation of Passive Voice

The passive voice (<Latin passivus 'suffering') (s Passiv, e Leideform) indicates an action without emphasis on the actor in opposition to the active voice (<Latin activus 'done') (s Aktiv, e Tätigkeitsform).

The passive voice in English is formed by 'to be' (or 'to get') plus the past participle of the verb. In German, werden is used:

PASSIVE = werden + past participle : Er wird...gesehen

Most transitive verbs can be used in the passive voice (3.3321). No passive, however, is formed of (1) reflexive verbs (3.3221) when subject and reflexive pronoun are identical; (2) verbs whose subject is incapable of action, but rather indicates a state of being, such as sein, existieren, etc., (3) verbs whose object is part of their meaning, such as Atem schöpfen, den Mut verlieren, etc., and (4) verbs whose object is a part of the body such as den Finger bewegen.

Intransitive verbs can also form a passive voice in German (but not in English); the resulting passive sentence has no grammatical subject. Instead, the filler es is used at the beginning of the sentence:

Man tanzte bis zum Morgen. Es wurde bis zum Morgen getanzt.
Bis zum Morgen wurde getanzt.

'One danced until morning. There was dancing until morning.'

3.181 Tenses in the Passive Voice

The passive voice can occur in the same tense system as the active voice:

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Pres.	Ich sehe ihn. 'I see him.'	Er wird von mir gesehen. 'He is seen by me.'
Past	Ich sah ihn. 'I saw him.'	Er wurde von mir gesehen. 'He was seen by me.'
Pres. perf.	Ich habe ihn gesehen. 'I have seen him.'	Er ist von mir gesehen worden. 'He has been seen by me.'
Past perf.	Ich hatte ihn gesehen. 'I had seen him.'	Er war von mir gesehen worden. 'He had been seen by me.'
Future	Ich werde ihn sehen. 'I will see him.'	Er wird von mir gesehen werden. 'He will be seen by me.'
Fut. perf.	Ich werde ihn gesehen haben. 'I will have seen him.'	Er wird von mir gesehen worden sein. 'He will have been seen by me.'

The transformation of an active sentence into a passive sentence and vice versa is similar in English and in German, involving four steps:

ACTIVE		PASSIVE ENGLISH	PASSIVE GERMAN
(1) direct object	becomes	subject	subject
(2) tense of verb	goes into	'to be'	werden
(3) verb	becomes	past participle	past participle
(4) subject	becomes	prepositional phrase	prepositional phrase
		'by'	von + dative mit + dative durch + accusative

(1) The direct object (accusative) of an active sentence becomes the subject of the passive sentence:

Wir fragen den Lehrer. 'We ask the teacher.' — Der Lehrer wird von uns gefragt. 'The teacher is asked by us.'

If there is no accusative object in the active sentence, filler es is used at the beginning of the passive sentence:

Wir helfen ihm. — Es wird ihm von uns geholfen.

If another phrase is posited at the beginning of the passive sentence, the es is deleted, resulting in a sentence without a grammatical subject (3.331):

Ihm wird geholfen.

Such sentences have no equivalent in English and must be translated in a nominal manner, e.g. 'Help is given to him.'

(2) The tense of the finite verb of the active sentence is assumed by the verb werden in the passive sentence. Passive infinitives (active infinitives: 3.151) are helpful in the formation of tenses:
Infinitive present passive gesehen werden 'to be seen' is the basis of the present and past tenses and the subjunctive mood:

Pres. ind.	Er wird...gesehen.	'He is seen.'
Past ind.	Er wurde...gesehen.	'He was seen.'
Gen. Subj.	Er würde...gesehen.	'He would be seen.'
Spec. Subj.	Er werde...gesehen.	'He be seen.'

In these tenses and moods, werden is the finite verb. Infinitive perfect passive gesehen worden sein 'to have been seen' is the basis for the compound tenses (3.17: present and past perfect and the past expressions of the subjunctive):

Pres. perf. ind.	Er ist...gesehen worden.	'He has been seen.'
Past perf. ind.	Er war...gesehen worden.	'He had been seen.'
Gen. Subj.	Er wäre..gesehen worden.	'He would have been seen.'
Spec. Subj.	Er sei...gesehen worden.	'He should have been seen.'

In these tenses and moods, sein is the auxiliary, as opposed to English 'have.' The past participle of werden in the passive voice is always worden without ge- (3.152).

(3) The verb of the active sentence (if it is not a modal verb; 3.182) becomes the past participle (3.152) and is posited at the end of the passive sentence:

Ich schreibe einen Brief. Ein Brief wird von mir geschrieben.
'I write a letter.' 'A letter is written by me.'

(4) The subject of the active sentence is transformed into a prepositional phrase. If the subject is a person, the preposition von + dative is used:

Der Vater belohnte das Kind. Das Kind wurde vom Vater belohnt.
'The father rewarded the child.' 'The child was rewarded by the father.'

If the active subject denotes the cause of an action, the preposition durch with accusative is used:

Feuer zerstörte das Haus. Das Haus wurde durch Feuer zerstört.
'Fire destroyed the house.' 'The house was destroyed by fire.'

If the active subject denotes a means, the preposition mit with dative is employed:

Blumen schmückten den Tisch. Der Tisch wurde mit Blumen geschmückt.

'Flowers decorated the table.' 'The table was decorated with flowers.'

If the active sentence has an impersonal subject, the actor is deleted in the passive:

Man spricht hier Deutsch. Hier wird Deutsch gesprochen.
'One speaks German here. German is spoken here.'

Personal active subjects are also frequently not reflected in the passive sentence, whose stylistic advantage is the emphasis on the action, and not on the actor.
For further discussion of the use and function of the passive voice, see section 3.232.

3.182 Future Passive and Passive with Modal Verbs

Since werden functions not only as the marker of the passive voice, but also of the future, the future passive tense consists of two forms of werden 'will be' (3.173):

Future: Er wird...gesehen werden. 'He will be seen.'

The future perfect passive is formed by the present tense of werden plus infinitive perfect passive:

Future perfect: Er wird...gesehen worden sein. 'He will have been seen.'

In both future tenses, werden is the finite verb.
Similarly, modal verbs are combined with either the infinitive present or perfect passive: (3.181)

Er muß...gesehen werden. 'He must be seen.'
Er muß...gesehen worden sein. 'He must have been seen.'

The modals, incapable of forming a passive voice, remain the finite verb and never have a past participle. Only the combination of modal plus infinitive present passive can be formed through all tenses and moods, except for the future perfect. English does not have equivalents for all tenses and moods:

Pres. ind.	Er muß...gesehen werden. 'He must be seen.'
Past ind.	Er mußte..gesehen werden. 'He had to be seen.'
Gen. subj.	Er müßte..gesehen werden. 'He would have to be seen.'
Spec. subj.	Er müsse..gesehen werden. 'He would have to be seen.'
Pres. perf.	Er hat....gesehen werden müssen. ('He has had to be seen.')
Past perf.	Er hatte..gesehen werden müssen. ('He had had to be seen.')
Past gen. subj.	Er hätte...gesehen werden müssen. ('He would have had to be seen.')

Past spec.subj. Er habe...gesehen werden müssen.
('He has had to be seen.')
Fut. ind. Er wird...gesehen werden müssen.
'He will have to be seen.'

The infinitive perfect passive as complement of modal verbs can only form the present and past indicative passive and the two subjunctives:

Pres. ind. Er muß... gesehen worden sein.
'He must have been seen.'
Past ind. Er mußte..gesehen worden sein.
'He had to have been seen.'
Gen. subj. Er müßte..gesehen worden sein.
('He would have to have been seen.')
Spec. subj. Er müsse..gesehen worden sein.
('He must have been seen.')

The passive voice with modals is difficult for English speakers, since the defective English modal system does not offer equivalents for most German tenses and moods. Extensive practice will help establish an understanding.

By and large, the passive voice is introduced in textbooks toward the end of elementary courses, since various morphological and syntactic structures have to be mastered before the passive voice can be understood. Therefore, this structure is an excellent means by which to review the inflection of verbs and nouns, the formation of tenses, the use of tenses and moods, and word order.

The passive voice without modals can be learned without major difficulties, once the interference from English 'to be' has been overcome. However, the temptation to use sein instead of werden is difficult to eliminate when the so-called 'apparent/statal/false passive' (s Zustandspassiv) is introduced together with the passive voice (Das Haus wird verkauft vs Das Haus ist verkauft). This wrongly named structure will be discussed under the use of the past participle (3.242) and under the past participle as complement of the finite verb in the predicate (3.313).

3.183 Alternate Expressions of Passive

Several constructions can function to replace the passive voice, especially those which use modals können and müssen (3.2235).

(1) Instead of the passive, a reflexive construction (3.3321) can be used without mentioning the actor:

Sein Wunsch kann erfüllt werden.
Sein Wunsch erfüllt sich.
'His wish can be granted (fulfilled).'

(2) The verb lassen with the reflexive pronoun, creates

an active sentence:

Sein Wunsch kann erfüllt werden.
Sein Wunsch läßt sich erfüllen.

(3) The verbs bekommen and erhalten, 'get,' plus past participle in an active sentence can replace the passive:

Sein Wunsch wird erfüllt.
Er bekommt seinen Wunsch erfüllt.
'He gets his wish granted.'

(4) The verbs finden, kommen, gelangen and gehen + a noun ending in -ung, derived from a verb, are used in an active sentence:

Sein Wunsch wird erfüllt.
Sein Wunsch geht in Erfüllung.

(5) Passive sentences with the modal können may be replaced by sein + an adjective, with the suffix -lich or -bar, derived from a verb:

Sein Wunsch kann erfüllt werden.
Sein Wunsch ist erfüllbar.
('His wish is grantable.')

(6) sein + zu + infinitive (3.2411) frequently replaces a passive construction with müssen:

Sein Wunsch muß erfüllt werden.
Sein Wunsch ist zu erfüllen.
'His wish is to be granted.'

3.19 Coordination of Verb Phrase

If two or more verbs are connected with the same subject (3.32), the second subject can be deleted and the finite verb in the present or preterite tense can be coordinated by und 'and' or oder 'or:'

Er singt und tanzt. Sang oder tanzte er?
'He sings and dances.' 'Did he sing or dance?'

In the compound tenses, moods, and voices (1.7-1.83) or with modal verbs (3.2232), the infinitives or past participles can be coordinated not only by und and oder, but also by weder...noch 'neither...nor,' nicht nur... sondern 'not...but,' or aber nicht 'but not:'

Er kann singen und tanzen. 'He can sing and dance.'
Er hat weder gesungen noch getanzt. 'He has neither sung nor danced.'
Es wurde gesungen aber nicht getanzt. ('There was singing but no dancing.')

For further discussion of these topics, see the sections 4.17, 5.23ff, 5.3ff.

3.2 Use and Function of Forms in the Verb Phrase

3.21 Use of Tenses

The four major tenses, present and present perfect (3.161, 3.171), simple past and past perfect (3.162, 3.172) are used in German as two sets with distinct concepts of temporality, in sharp contrast to English.

The first set of tenses, represented by the present and the present perfect, is used in conversations for the "orally reported world." For this reason, the present perfect is often called 'conversational past.'

The concept of "narrated world" employs the simple past and the past perfect tenses, transposing an action of a present moment in a narrative present (expressed by the simple past) are given in the past perfect tense. The simple past is sometimes called 'narrative past,' but it would be more appropriate as 'narrative present,' reserving the term 'narrative past' for the past perfect.

STYLE	EXPRESSION OF NOW	EXPRESSION OF PRIOR TO NOW
CONVERSATION	present tense	present perfect tense
NARRATION	simple past tense	past perfect tense

German analyzes time stylistically as to when the speech act occurs and as to the setting in a conversation or narration. English analyzes time as to the aspect of habitual or continual action and as to its completion prior to the moment of speech or its beginning and end:

GERMAN					ENGLISH				
#	EXAMPLE	TENSE	TIME	STYLE	# EXAMPLE	CONTEXT	TENSE	ASPECT	ACTION/ SPEECH
I	Er geht zur Schule.	pre-sent	now	CONVERSATION	(1) He goes to school.	He is a student.	present	habitual	at
					(2) He does go to school...	He is learning.	do+inf	emphatic	at
					(3) He is going to school...	right now; still.	present	habitual	at
					(4) He has been going to school...	for some time.	perfect prog.	habitual	prior/ at
					(5) He will go to school...	tomorrow; next year.	future		after
					(6) He will be going to school	by the time you return.	future pro-gress.	habitual	after
II	Er ist zur Schule gegangen	pre-sent per-fect	prior to now		(7a) He went to school...	years ago.	past		prior
					(8) He did go to school...	he can read.	past do + inf.	emphatic	prior
					(9) He will have gone to school.	by tonight.	future perfect		after
					(10) He has gone to school...	five minutes ago.	present	habitual	prior/at
III	Er ging zur Schule	past	now	NARRATION	(7b) He went to school...	and there he met...	past	narrative	prior
					(11) He was going to school...	when he saw...	past pro-gress.	narrative	prior
IV	Er war zur Schule gegangen	past per-	prior to now		(12) He had gone to school...	before he went to war.	past perfect	narrative	prior-prior
					(13) He had been going to school.	before he took that job.	past perf.	narrative	prior-prior

3.211 Use of Present Tense

As shown in the preceding chart, English has six expressions which correspond to one expression of the present tense in German. The numbers given with the examples are those of the chart:

(1) As in English, the present tense in German expresses statements of general validity which are independent from temporality or which are regularly repeated actions:

Es ist nicht alles Gold, was glänzt.
'All that glitters is not gold.'
Deutschland ist schön.
'Germany is beautiful.'
Er wäscht sein Auto jede Woche.
'He washes his car every week.'

German has only one expression for an action or state occurring at the very time of speaking, whereas English segments time as to the moment of speech, or according to emphatic and habitual aspect:

(2) Where English can stress a verb by the use of 'to do,' German uses only the present tense:

Versteht ihr alles? Nicht alles, aber wir verstehen doch viel.
('Do you understand everything? Not all, but we do understand a lot.')

(3) German uses the present tense regardless of its beginning and continuation into the future, whereas English uses the progressive form:

Was machst du? Ich schreibe einen Brief.
'What are you doing? I am writing a letter.'

(4) Even if an extended habitual action has begun in the past and continues, German employs the present tense, whereas English used the perfect progressive:

Wir wohnen seit fünf Jahren in diesem Haus.
'We have been living in this house for five years.'

(5) German does not use the future tense when the context or a time modifier (3.214; 3.422) indicates that the action will occur in the future:

Wann gehen wir einkaufen? Wir gehen in fünf Minuten.
'When will we go shopping? We'll leave in five minutes.'

(6) The future progressive also does not exist in German:

Morgen kommt er uns besuchen.
'Tomorrow he will be coming to visit us.'

The teaching of the German present tense and its use is not difficult, since the students will easily understand that the German system is very simple. However, interference from the progressive form in English has to be combatted.

3.212 Use of Conversational Present Perfect

The tense which is used to express an action or state which occurred prior to the moment of speech in a conversation is the present perfect (3.171), regardless of the distance in the past or the aspect:

(7a) Gestern habe ich einen guten Film gesehen.
'Yesterday I saw a good movie.'

(8) Sie haben wirklich nach ihm gefragt.
'They did indeed ask about him.'

(9) Even future perfect meaning (3.174; 3.215) is rendered in most instances in the perfect tense:

Bald haben wir es erreicht.
'Soon we will have reached it.'

(10) A habitual, repeated action in the recent past is also expressed in the perfect tense:

Sie haben ihn gestern wieder nicht angetroffen.
'They didn't meet him yesterday, either.'

Although this different stylistic use of the conversational present perfect is difficult to master for English speaking students, it becomes logical when its origin is learned. In the Upper German dialects (1.42; 1.82), all final /-ə/ were lost through apocope (3.142). Therefore, no difference is heard between the present and simple past tenses of weak verbs:

STANDARD GERMAN	
PRESENT	PAST
er sag-t er ha-t	er sag-te- er ha-t-te-

UPPER GERMAN	
PRESENT	PAST
er sag-t er ha-t	

For this reason, the use of the past tense in speaking was gradually replaced by the present perfect to indicate a distinction between an action occurring now or prior to now.

The use of the conversational present perfect tense must be practiced in context and in contrast to English. Students will translate the sentence Ich habe lange in Hamburg gelebt as 'I have lived in Hamburg for a long time' or 'I

have been living in Hamburg for a long time,' implying that my domicile is still there. However, the German tense and the time modifier (3.214) indicate that living in Hamburg has ended in the past and that the speaker is now living elsewhere. The general rule is to translate any German present perfect into the English preterite, later to be refined by the clue provided by the time modifier (3.214). If this rule is followed, the example would be 'I lived in Hamburg for a long time,' making it clear that it is a thing of the past.

3.213 Use of Narrative Past and Past Perfect

In a conversation, the speaker's view point is on the present, the time at hand. An event which occurred prior to the present is expressed by the present perfect.

In a narration, the present time is transposed into the past tense, and the events occurring prior to that narrative present are expressed by the past perfect. The term 'narration' does not imply that all narratives must be written; oral storytelling occurs too, although it is usually not maintained very long in the preterite.

Fairy tales are useful as illustrations. They were handed down by oral tradtion through centuries, then written down to be read or narrated. Their beginning Es war einmal.. 'Once upon a time there was...' sets the stage for a narrative in which the events at one time were 'now' (jetzt), but are 'then' (damals) from the narrator's standpoint.

CONVERSATION		NARRATION
Er wohnt jetzt in Berlin 'He is living in Berlin now.'	(7b)	Er wohnte damals in Berlin 'He lived then in Berlin.'
Er geht dort zur Schule. 'He is going to school there.'	(11)	Er ging dort zur Schule. 'He was going to school there.'
Er hat davor in Mainz gelebt. 'He lived in Mainz before.'	(12)	Er hatte zuvor in Mainz gelebt. 'He had lived in Mainz before.'
Dort hat er auch gearbeitet. 'He also worked there.'	(13)	Dort hatte er auch gearbeitet. 'He also had worked there.'

These narrative tenses offer no teaching problems once the difference in style is understood.

3.214 Time Modifiers

Because of the scarcity of verbal tenses, German indicates a more precise delineation of the time at which an event, action, or process occurred by the use of modifiers (3.4ff).

which can be adverbs, noun phrases, or prepositional phrases.

(1) Point-Of-Time Modifiers:

In order to pinpoint a given moment in the continuum of time, certain expressions are used, for example:

jetzt, gerade, nun, morgen, bald; letzten Sonntag, vorige Woche, im nächsten Jahr, vor hundert Jahren.

These modifiers of time can occur in all tenses in conversation as well as in narration.
In German, the progressive forms and the future tenses are considered redundant when a time modifier can indicate the point-of-time at which the action takes place. Although such modifiers are no problem for English-speaking students, their importance to clarify temporality and their function as suppletion of the whole set of English verbal tenses must be pointed out.

(2) Stretch-Of-Time Modifiers:

The English verbal tenses have the capacity to indicate at what moment in the stretch of time an action, event, or process had ended or is being continued. German, with fewer verbal tenses, must rely on modifiers to delineate the stretch of time and the moment at which an action has begun or ended. Two different sets of stretch-of-time modifiers can be distinguished:

(2a) Up-to-Now Modifiers:

These modifiers refer to periods of time which began in the past and extend to the moment of speaking at which the action, process, or event ends. Such modifiers frequently begin with schon or seit:

Ich habe schon lange auf ihn gewartet - da kommt er.
'For a long time I waited for him - there he comes.'

The use of the perfect tense in German indicates that the waiting is a thing of the past; schon lange, the up-to-now (UPT) phrase, denotes that the waiting ended at the point of speaking, e.g. Er kam an. 'He arrived.'

If the same sentence is transposed into the narrative past perfect, the meaning remains the same.

(2b) End-In-Past-Or Future Modifiers:

These modifiers refer to actions in stretches of time which can either end in the past

(conversational: present perfect; narrative: past perfect) or in the future (conversational: present tense).

Ich habe lange auf ihn gewartet - er kommt nicht.
'I have been waiting for him a long time - he hasn't come.'

The use of the time phrase lange, an end-in-past-or-future (EPF) phrase, shows that the waiting is still going on and might end sometime in the future. In a narration, the same time phrase indicates that the action is continuing also.

Typical stretch-of-time phrases are:

UP-TO-NOW (UPT)	END-IN-PAST-OR-FUTURE (EPF)	ENGLISH
schon lange	lange	'for a long time'
seit langem		
schon seit langem		
	noch lange	'for a longer time'
seitdem		'ever since'
schon drei Jahre	drei Jahre	'for three years'
seit drei Jahren		
schon tagelang	tagelang	'for days'
noch nicht	nicht	'not (yet)'
noch nie	nie	'never'
schon einmal	einmal, je	'ever'
schon oft	oft	'often'
schon immer	immer	'always'

These time phrases are important in order to understand what a German sentence means:

Ich habe ihn noch nie gesehen. 'I have never seen him.'

The UPT phrase indicates that up-to-now I have never seen him, but there may still be a chance to see him some day. Therefore, in English, the present perfect tense is used.

Ich habe ihn nie gesehen. 'I never saw (did see) him.'

Here, the EPF phrase indicates that the possibility of meeting has ended in the past. The implication is that there will never again be a chance to meet him; possibly he is dead. Since the German tense and time phrase denote an action ending at the moment of speech, the English past is the appropriate tense.

For information on additional time modifiers, see section 3.442.

3.215 Use of Future and Future Perfect

In German, the future tenses (3.173-3.174) are rarely used, since a modifier of time (3.214; 3.422) or the context indicates, in most instances, that an action, event, or process will commence in the future. Instead of the future tense, the present tense is employed:

> Nächsten Sommer fahren wir nach Norwegen.
> 'Next summer we will go to Norway.'

The future tense is only used when the action to occur in the future is emphasized, most frequently through a modifier or clause of contrast (3.426; 5.3345):

> Obwohl wir eigentlich kein Geld haben, werden wir doch nach Norwegen fahren.
> 'Although we really don't have the money, we will go to Norway nonetheless.'

The future perfect tense, likewise, is rarely used; instead, the present perfect is employed:

> Morgen hat er die Arbeit beendet.
> 'Tomorrow he will have finished the job.'

Only when the concept of future is stressed through a contrast is the future perfect tense used:

> Obwohl es fast unmöglich ist, wird er morgen die Arbeit beendet haben.
>
> 'Although it is nearly impossible, he will have finished the job by tomorrow.'

Because of the relative infrequency of the future tenses, it is not necessary to spend much time on them in elementary German classes. The recognition of werden+infinitie+time modifier denoting the future may be practiced.

However, werden + infinitive + a modifier of mood (3.222; 3.423) is very frequently used in assumptions, which will be discussed in section 3.2231.

3.22 Use of Moods

Three different modes of expression are distinguished: the indicative (3.16-3.162; 3.17-3.174), the subjunctive (3.163-3.164), and the imperative (3.165).

3.221 Use of Indicative

The indicative mood is a general, neutral, objective way of describing reality in factual statements about something that does occur or has occurred.

The indicative is used at three levels of time: (1) present (present tense (3.161, 3.211), (2) past (simple past: 3.162; 3.213; present perfect tense: 3.171; 3.212; past perfect tense: 3.172; 3.213), and (3) future (future

tense: 3.173; 3.215; future perfect tense: 3.174; 3.215). In the use of the past, two stylistic levels are distinguished: conversational (present perfect) and narrative (past perfect). The indicative is also used for the description of reality in the two voices (active voice, 3.16-3.162, 3.17-3.174; passive, 3.18-3.183).

However, imaginary and assumed circumstances can also be expressed by the indicative, if a mood modifier (3.222) indicates the speaker's opinion:

Ich nehme an, er kommt heute. Er ist sicher dort.
'I assume he will come today. He is probably there.'

The auxiliary werden and the modal verbs can, in many instances, describe imaginary or assumed statements; see section 3.223.

3.222 Mood Modifiers

Mood modifiers are certain expressions which modify the meaning of a statement or question (5.211). They can be adverbs (3.411), prepositional phrases (3.413), or clauses in the indicative mood. Such modifiers can be replaced by modal verbs (3.223ff) or the general subjunctive (3.163; 3.224ff).

If a speaker indicates a subjective belief or an assumption, adverbs signal the speaker's attitude:

Er ist jetzt vielleicht zu Haus.
'He is perhaps at home now.'

Adverbs of this nature include: vielleicht, wahrscheinlich, vermutlich and möglicherweise.

The same attitude can be expressed by a clause containing verbs such as glauben, annehmen or vermuten 'to believe, assume:'

Ich glaube, er ist jetzt zu Haus.
'I believe he is at home now.'

A clause such as Es ist möglich/wahrscheinlich/anzunehmen, daß...'It is possible/probable/to be assumed that...' (5.332) expresses the same subjective assumption:

Es ist möglich, daß er jetzt zu Haus ist.
'It is possible that he is at home now.'

Modal verbs in the indicative mood and in the general subjunctive can replace the above mood phrases:

Er kann jetzt zu Haus sein. 'He may be at home now.'
Er könnte jetzt zu Haus sein. 'He might be at home now.'

These modifiers are important because they have a relationship to the general subjunctive and to modifier clauses (5.3ff). Since assumptions can be expressed in a variety of manners, such expressions must be pointed out.

3.223 Use of Modal Verbs

The use and meaning of modal verbs belongs to the discussion of moods, since modals indicate modality in a manner related to the subjunctive and imperative moods.

The six modal verbs, können, wollen, mögen, müssen, sollen, and dürfen (3.1341; 3.171) are complex, since they are used in various semantic and syntactic contexts which differentiate their meaning. In comparison to English, the German modals are difficult, since the English modals lack a complete set of tenses and since their semantic range is not in all instances comparable to German.

Another modal should be added; the general subjunctive of mögen, möchte, is no longer understood as subjunctive, but rather as a present indicative. It is used as a polite form of the present indicative of wollen. The past tenses of möchte are also taken from wollen.

The auxiliary werden frequently functions like a modal with infinitive complements with a mood modifier (3.222).

3.2231 Objective and Subjective Meaning

Out of context, the English sentence 'He must have money' is ambiguous. It can mean 'He is starving; from somewhere he must obtain money to buy groceries.' In this sense, the speaker gives an objective statement, reporting reality. On the other hand, the same sentence can mean 'I am assuming he is rich and has a lot of money, since he is driving a very expensive car.' In this instance, the speaker gives a subjective opinion and assumption.

Similarly, the meaning of German modals distinguishes an objective and subjective use, which is determined by the context and, sometimes, by the type of infinitive complement. Modal verbs can be complemented by an infinitive present active or passive, or by an infinitive perfect active or passive (3.151, 3.181).

3.2232 Infinitive Complements

When modal verbs are complemented by an infinitive present, their meaning is just as ambiguous as the English sentence above out of context, if the infinitive is sein or haben with an accusative object. However, if the infinitive is any other verb, the objective meaning is clear. The following examples show modals in objective use in the present and narrative simple past tense (compound tenses are formed with 'double infinitive,' but they are used less frequently). The complement is an infinitive present active and passive.

Er kann/konnte mitgehen/gefragt werden.
'He can/was able to go along/be asked.'
Er will/wollte mitgehen/gefragt werden.
'He wants/wanted to go along/be asked.'

Er mag/mochte nicht mitgehen/gefragt werden.[1]
'He does/did not want to go along/be asked.'
Er möchte/wollte mitgehen/gefragt werden.
'He would like/wanted to go along/be asked.'
Er muß/mußte mitgehen/gefragt werden.
'He must (has to)/had to go along/be asked.'
Er soll/sollte mitgehen/gefragt werden.
'He shall (is supposed to)/was supposed to go along/be asked.'
Er darf/durfte mitgehen/gefragt werden.
'He may (is allowed to)/was allowed to go along/be asked.'

Used subjectively, however, the modals have a different meaning:

Er kann/könnte 20 Jahre alt sein.
'He may (can)/could be 20 years old (but I am not sure.)'
Er will/wollte 20 Jahre alt sein.
'He claims/claimed to be 20 years old (but I doubt it).'
Er mag/mochte 20 Jahre alt sein.
'He may/might be 20 years old (but I have no proof of it).'
Er muß/mußte 20 Jahre alt sein.
'He must/had to be 20 years old (since he is a senior in college).'
Er soll/sollte 20 Jahre alt sein.
'He is/was said to be 20 years old (but I have no proof).'

Subjective assumptions can also be expressed with werden in the present indicative (3.173), frequently with a mood modifier such as doch, wohl, vielleicht or wahrscheinlich (3.222; 3.423). In such cases the present tense of werden functions as a modal verb and should be translated as 'may.'

Er wird (wohl) 20 Jahre alt sein.
'He may be 20 years old.'

These subjective assumptions can be transposed into the general subjunctive of modals (except sollen, wollen and werden), giving a meaning further removed from reality. Note that the subjunctive is not used as a conditional with the implication of 'if..then...' (3.2241; 3.3346).

Er könnte/müßte/dürfte 20 Jahre alt sein.
'He could/must/might be 20 years old.'

The expression of a subjective assumption regarding an event which occurred in the past is the general subjunctive of haben plus an infinitive and the apparent infinitive of the modals ('double infinitive' 3.1351):

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[1]mögen with infinitive is used mostly in negated sentences.

Er hätte damals mitgehen können.
'He could have gone along then.'

Infinitive Perfect Active or Passive as Complement:

If the complement of modal verbs is an infinitive perfect active or passive (3.151; 3.181), the meaning is objective when an EFP time modifier (3.214) or a clause of time (5.3342) indicates that the action is completed at a certain time:

Bis heute abend muß er gefragt worden sein.
'By this evening he must have been asked.'

Because of the complexity of the verb phrase, no compound past tenses are formed. Note the structural identity with the future perfect tense (3.174). However, without a temporal context, sentences with infinitive perfect complements usually indicate subjective assumptions, both in the indicative and subjunctive:

Er kann/konnte/könnte mitgegangen/gefragt worden sein.
'He can/could have gone along/been asked.'
Er will/wollte mitgegangen/gefragt worden sein.
'He claims/claimed to have gone along/been asked.'
Er muß/mußte/müßte mitgegangen/gefragt worden sein.
'He must/had to have gone along/been asked.'
Er soll/sollte mitgegangen/gefragt worden sein.
'He is/was said to have gone along/been asked.'
Er mag/mochte mitgegangen/gefragt worden sein.[1]
'He may/might have gone along/been asked.'
Er dürfte mitgegangen/gefragt worden sein.[2]
'He might have gone along/been asked.'

Although used similarly in English, the difference between subjective and objective meaning of modal verbs in German is difficult to teach and should be introduced after the formation of tenses and moods has been fully mastered. The different meanings of modals in the context of objective and subjective sentences must be carefully practiced.

3.2233 Other Complements of Modal Verbs

Modals can have an infinitive which is suppressed but understood, or they can be complemented by an accusative (3.3321) or a daß-clause (5.332). In these instances, the meaning is always objective (unless the clause with modals is part of a conditional sentence, 3.2251). Since the modals in clauses without infinitive complement function as main verbs,

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[1] Although historically and formally möchte is the subjunctive of mögen, it is not used as such, but rather as an indicative present.

[2] dürfen is rarely used in the indicative in subjective assumptions.

the compound tenses are formed with the past participle of the modals (3.171), e.g., Er hat...gekonnt.

Suppressed Infinitive:

In any context, the infinitive complement can be suppressed to avoid repetition:

Er muß arbeiten, aber er will nicht.
'He must work, but he does not want to.'

After all modals, a verb of motion (such as gehen, kommen, etc.) can be suppressed:

Er kann/will/möchte/muß/darf nach Haus/hinein/zum Direktor.
'He can/wants to/likes to/must/may/go home/in/to the boss.'

Accusative Object as Complement:

If the infinitive is understood as haben (bekommen, erhalten, etc.) or essen and trinken, the infinitive can be deleted after the modals which express a wish or desire, wollen, mögen, möchte. The accusative object functions as the complement of the modals:

Er will/wollte ein Auto.
'He wants/wanted a car.'
Er mag/mochte keinen Tee.
'He does/did not like tea.'
Er möchte/wollte Salat.
'He would like/wanted salad.'

The modal können is frequently complemented by an accusative object which denotes a skill, frequently a language:

Er kann/konnte Chinesisch.
'He knows/knew Chinese.'

daß-Clause as Complement:

The three modals which express a wish, wollen, mögen and möchte, can be complemented by a daß-clause to indicate a wish directed at someone (5.332):

Ich will/wollte, daß du mitgehst.
'I want (you to) come along.'
Ich mag/möchte nicht, daß du mitgehst.
'I do/did not want (you to) come along.'

3.2234 Modal Verbs in Imperatives

Although German has imperative forms (3.165), modals are frequently used to express strong commands:

Du mußt jetzt still sein!
Ihr sollt jetzt still sein! 'You must be quiet now.'
Sie sollen jetzt still sein!

The intonation distinguishes these commands from statements (2.51); the stress is on the modal. Sollen/sollte is used in the same manner. A more polite and weaker command is expressed with möchte.

The modal wollen can also be used in an imperative, but the word order is as in questions, from which the command is only distinguished by intonation:

> Willst du (wollt ihr/wollen Sie) jetzt still sein! 'Will you be quite now!'

Polite questions or requests are also expressed by the modals:

> Darf ich Sie um das Salz bitten? 'May I ask you for the salt?'
> Wollen Sie mir das Salz reichen? 'Would you pass me the salt?'
> Können Sie mir das Salz reichen? 'Can you pass me the salt?'

A more polite request is expressed by the general subjunctive:

> Dürfte ich Sie um das Salz bitten? 'May I ask you for the salt?'
> Könnten Sie mir das Salz reichen? 'Could you pass me the salt?'

Instead of wollen, möchte is used in polite requests and is still understood as a subjunctive form:

> Möchten Sie mir das Salz reichen? 'Would you like to pass me the salt?'

3.2235 Idiomatic Use of Individual Modal Verbs

In addition to the meanings and uses of the modal verbs discussed in the preceding paragraphs, each modal verb has its own semantic range and idiomatic use.

können:

As in English, können 'can, be able/capable' indicates a capability and competence in objective use. Subjectively, it expressed an assumption, as English 'can, could.' Also as in English, the semantic range of können is enlarged at the expense of dürfen 'may, be allowed/permitted:' Instead of Darf ich dein Auto borgen? 'May I borrow your car?' Kann ich dein Auto borgen? 'Can I borrow your car?' is used with increasing frequency.

The idiomatic expression Es kann/könnte sein, daß... introduces a clause with subjective meaning:

> Es könnte sein, daß er den Zug verpaßt hat.
> 'It could be (possible) that he missed the train.'

The past participle gekonnt can be used as complement of sein: Das ist gekonnt. 'That is well-done.' The past

participle can also be used as an adjective: Das war eine gekonnte Vortellung. 'That was an expert performance.'

wollen:

This modal expresses a wish, plan, or desire and must be translated into English with the verb 'want' in objective use. When used subjectively, wollen means 'claim.'

Like können, the past participle of wollen, gewollt, can be a complement of sein: Das war gewollt. 'That was intended, planned.' It can also be used negatively: Das war ungewollt. 'That was unintended, unintentional.'

möchte:

In modern German, this original general subjunctive of mögen is understood as indicative and the only polite way of expressing wollen. The past tense and the past participle are taken from wollen: wollte and gewollt. Möchte should be translated as 'would like' or 'like' in objective use. Subjectively, möchte occurs rarely.

The only instance in which a subjunctive meaning survives is in polite requests: Möchten Sie mir bitte das Salz reichen? 'Would you like to hand me the salt, please?'

Möchte should be taught together with wollen as a polite present tense variation.

mögen:

The cognate of English 'may' is only used with this meaning in subjective assumptions. Objectively, mögen functions primarily with an accusative object with the meaning of 'like,' frequently emphasized by gern:

Ich mag ihn gern. 'I like him.'

The modal expresses a permanent inclination or disinclination, in contrast to möchte, which denotes a temporary preference:

Er mag Jazz nicht. Jetzt möchte sie Jazz hören. 'He does not like Jazz at all. Now she wants to hear Jazz.'

English 'like' can be translated as mögen, gern haben, or gefallen:

Ich mag dieses Bild (gern). Ich habe dieses Bild gern. Dieses Bild gefällt mir. 'I like this picture.'

müssen:

Like English 'must, have to,' müssen expresses a necessity or need as well as an external or internal compulsion in objective use. Subjective assumptions are also expressed with müssen and translated as 'must.'

The negation of a positive sentence with müssen depends on the meaning: If müssen indicates an objective external compulsion, then it is negated by nicht:

Sie müssen mir alles sagen, was Sie wissen.
'You must (have to) tell me all you know.'
Sie müssen es mir nicht sagen, wenn Sie nicht wollen.
'You don't have to tell me if you don't want to.'

If müssen indicates an objective necessity or need, nicht brauchen zu plus infinitive is used instead:

Du mußt zum Arzt gehen. Du brauchst nicht zum Arzt zu gehen.
'You must go to the doctor. You don't have to go to the doctor.'

If müssen expresses a command or law, it is negated by nicht dürfen:
Man muß links überholen. Man darf nicht rechts überholen.
'One must pass on the left. One must not pass on the right.'

If müssen indicates a subjective assumption, nicht können supplies the negation:

Er muß jetzt angekommen sein. Er kann noch nicht angekommen sein.
'He must have arrived now. He cannot have arrived yet.'

The modal müssen can be replaced by haben zu plus infinitive if the complement is an infinitive present active. While English 'must' and 'have to' seem semantically equivalent, German haben zu denotes a strong external compulsion:

Du mußt das erledigen. Du hast das jetzt zu erledigen.
'You must take care of that. You have (got) to take care of that.'

However, if the complement of müssen is an infinitive present passive, the replacement of müssen is sein zu plus infinitive:

Das muß erledigt werden. Das ist zu erledigen.
'That must be taken care of.'

sollen:

This cognate of the relatively infrequent English 'shall' means objectively 'to be supposed to, to be to' and indicates a weaker external compulsion than müssen.

Subjective assumptions imply a report on something heard or seen but the veracity of which is doubted by the speaker. The translation is 'to be said to.'

dürfen:

With the objective meaning of 'to be allowed/permitted to' dürfen is, as English 'may,' increasingly being replaced by können.

Subjectively, dürfen is mainly used in the general subjunctive, dürfte, and should be translated as 'may, might.'

The expression Es dürfte sein, daß...'It may/might be that...' introduces a subjective assumption expressing doubt.

The use of the modal verbs in the conditional subjunctive and in indirect speech will be discussed in sections 3.224 and 3.225, respectively.

In summary, the modal verbs function as modifiers of other verbs (expressed by the infinitive) just as adverbs, prepositional phrases, or noun phrases function as modifiers of the whole verb phrase (3.4ff).

3.224 Use of General Subjunctive

The general subjunctive (3.163; 3.175; 3.223) expresses an imaginary, possible, and unreal circumstance. Its main function is the unreal conditional (r konjunktivische Bedingungssatz, Irrealis).

3.2241 Unreal Conditions

A statement of reality can be transformed into a condition in both German and English:

Fact:	Er hat kein Geld. Er fährt nicht nach Europa. 'He has no money. He does not travel to Europe.'
Corresponding Condition:	Wenn er kein Geld hat, fährt er nicht nach Europa. 'If he has no money, he does not travel to Europe.'
Opposite Condition:	Wenn er Geld hat, fährt er nach Europa. 'If he has money, he travels to Europe.'

Both conditions are in the indicative mood; the implication is the possibility that he still may travel, provided he can raise the money.

Unreal conditions proceed from the opposite condition above in that they indicate the opposition of fact, of the reality, and imply no possibility:

Unreal Condition:	Wenn er Geld hätte, führe er nach Europa. 'If he had money, he would travel to Europe.'

Such unreal conditions are in the general subjunctive mood: a positive fact is negated and a negative fact is made positive:

To transform a real fact into an unreal condition, the subordinating conjunctions wenn or falls 'if' introduce a subordinate clause (5.3346). The conjunction can also be deleted, and the finite verb moves to the beginning of

the clause:

Wenn er Geld hätte, führe er nach Europa.
Hätte er Geld, führe er nach Europa.
'Had he money, he would travel to Europe.'

Since weak and some strong verbs (3.163) have no subjunctive form distinct from the past indicative, würde plus infinitive is obligatory to show the subjunctive:

Sie würde es kaufen, wenn sie könnte.
'She would buy it if she could.'

However, when the first part of the sentence has a visible subjunctive, the use of würde is not obligatory in the second part:

Wenn sie könnte, kaufte sie es.

The use of würde is increasing, even with strong verbs that have a general subjunctive form.

When referring to the past, the general subjunctive of haben or sein plus past participle is used (3.175):

Wenn sie uns gebeten hätten, wären wir mitgefahren.
'If they had asked us, we would have gone along.'

As in English, unreal conditions express the opposite of reality. Therefore, antonyms of adjectives (arm-reich, zu laut-leiser), of prepositions (vor-hinter), or of negations (nichts-etwas, kein-ein) are employed when a statement of reality is transformed into an unreal condition:

Sie sind arm, sie haben wenig zu essen.
Wenn sie reich wären, hätten sie mehr zu essen.
'They are poor, they have little to eat.'
'If they were rich, they would have more to eat.'

3.2242 Unreal Wishes

As in English, unreal wishes in German consist of a subordinate clause without a main clause. Emphatic modifiers, such as doch, nur and bloß (3.429) are obligatory. These wishes have the intonation of an exclamation:

Wenn ich ihn bloß gefragt hätte! 'If only I had asked him!'

The wenn can also be deleted:

Hätte ich ihn bloß gefragt! 'Had I only asked him!'

Unreal wishes can also be introduced by X wünschte or X wollte 'X wishes (that)...' followed by a daß-clause (5.332) or, more frequently, a main clause; the intonation is that of sentences:

Ich wünschte, daß er heute käme. Ich wünschte, er käme heute.
'I wish he would come today.'

3.2243 Unreal Comparisons

A statement of reality in the indicative can be followed by an unreal comparison in the general subjunctive, introduced by the double conjunction als ob or als wenn 'as if:'

Er ist kein Experte. Er benimmt sich aber so.
'He is no expert, but he behaves like one.'
Er benimmt sich, als ob er ein Experte wäre.
'He behaves as if he were an expert.'

The wenn or ob can be omitted; the finite verb follows als:

Er benimmt sich, als wäre er ein Experte.

The particle so is not obligatory in sentences where the comparison refers to the verb phrase. However, so is used frequently when adjectives or adverbs introduce the unreal comparison:

Er schreit so laut, als wäre sein Leben in Gefahr.
'He screams (as) piercingly, as if his life were endangered.'

If the comparison refers to a noun, so plus ein-determiner (4.132) or solch- (4.131) preceeds the noun:

Er macht so ein Geschrei, als wäre sein Leben in Gefahr.
Er macht solches Geschrei,...
'He cries out as if his life were endangered.'

For a discussion of modifiers of comparison and modifier clauses of comparison, see sections 3.428 and 5.3347, respectively.

3.2244 Other Uses of General Subjunctive

The general subjunctive can also express subjective assumptions, doubt, or polite requests in a manner similar to modal verbs (3.223).

Assumptions are frequently expressed in relative clauses (5.331) by the general subjunctive, while the main clause is in the indicative:

Er hat ein Auto. Du kannst es vielleicht borgen.
'He has a car. Maybe you can borrow it.'
Er hat ein Auto, das du vielleicht borgen könntest.
'He has a car which you may be able to borrow.'

A doubtful question can be expressed by the general subjunctive and, frequently, a modifier such as wirklich (3.423). Although the majority of strong verbs have a form of the subjunctive, würde is used even with them, since the general subjunctive appears somewhat stilted:

Würden Sie ihm wirklich das Geld geben?
'Would you really give him the money?'

In the same manner, polite requests are formed (3.2235):

Würden Sie mir bitte die Zeitung mitbringen?
'Would you please bring the paper along for me?'

An action or event which is expected but which, at the last moment, did not occur and would have been disastrous, is expressed by a main clause by general subjunctive and the mood modifiers fast or beinahe (3.222):

Sie hätte es beinahe vergessen.
('She nearly forgot it.')

In some idiomatic expressions, general subjunctive is used:

Das wäre alles. 'That will be all.'

3.225 Use Of Special Subjunctive

The main function of the special subjunctive (2.164; 3.175) is in indirect speech/discourse (quotative) (e indirekte Rede).

3.2251 Indirect Speech

Since indirect speech quotes what someone has said, written, or thought, its meaning is closely related to subjective assumptions with sollen or wollen (3.2231):

Er soll krank sein.	'He is said to be sick.'
Er will krank sein.	'He claims to be sick.'
Man sagte, er sei krank.	'One said (that) he was sick.'

Tenses in Indirect Speech:

To transform direct speech into indirect speech, the present indicative verb forms are changed into those of the special subjunctive:

Er sagte mir: "Ich gehe jetzt nach Haus."
'He told me: "I am going home now."'
Er sagte mir, er gehe jetzt nach Haus.
'He told me (that) he was going home now.'

Only one expression of the past exists in indirect speech: Special subjunctive of haben or sein plus past participle. Therefore, the simple past, present perfect, and past perfect tenses indicative have only one expression in indirect speech: (3.175)

Past:	Er sagte:	"Gestern ging ich aus und sah einen Film."
Pres perf	Er sagte:	"Gestern bin ich ausgegangen und habe einen Film gesehen."
Past perf	Er sagte:	"Gestern war ich ausgegangen und hatte einen Film gesehen."
	'He said:	"Yesterday I went/have gone/had gone and saw/(have) seen/(had) seen a movie."'

Indirect Speech: Er sagte, gestern sei er ausgegangen und habe einen Film gesehen.
'He said he had gone and (had) seen a movie.'

When the direct speech refers to an action or event to take place in the future, regardless of whether or not the future tense is used (3.173; 3.215), the indirect speech employs the special subjunctive of werden plus infinitive:

Direct Speech: Er sagte: "Morgen kümmere ich mich darum."
Er sagte: "Darum werde ich mich kümmern."
'He said: "I will take care of it."'

Indirect Speech: Er sagte, er werde sich darum kümmern.
'He said he would take care of it.'

Replacement of Invisible Forms:

Since many forms of the special subjunctive are identical with the present indicative (3.164), the forms of the general subjunctive are used instead:

Sie sagten: "Wir wissen und verstehen es."
'They said: "We know and understand it."'
Sie sagten, sie wüßten und verstünden es.
'They said they knew and understood it.'

Pronominal Shift:

Since the speaker reports from his point of view, the personal (4.161), reflexive (4.1611) pronouns and possessive determiners (4.132) are shifted in indirect speech to refer to the person speaking:

Er sagte: "Ich ärgere mich, denn ich habe mein Geld verloren."
'He said: "I am annoyed because I have lost my money."'
Er sagte, er ärgere sich, denn er habe sein Geld verloren.
'He said he was annoyed because he lost his money.'

Sometimes, local and temporal perspectives are also shifted:

Sie schrieben: "Wir wohnen jetzt hier."
'They wrote: "We live here now."'
Sie schrieben, sie wohnten nun dort.
'They wrote they were living there now.'

Questions in Indirect Speech:

If the direct speech consists of a yes-or-no question (5.211), the subordinating conjunction ob 'whether, if' introduces a subordinate clause in the indirect speech (5.333):

Sie fragten mich: "Kannst du auch mitkommen?"
'They asked me: "Can you come along too?"'

Sie fragten mich, ob ich auch mitkommen könne.
'They asked me if I could come along too.'

If the direct question is introduced by an interrogative, the interrogative assumes the function of a subordinating conjunction in the indirect speech (5.333):

Er fragte sie: "Warum kannst du nicht mitkommen?"
'He asked her: "Why can't you come along?"'
Er fragte sie, warum sie nicht mitkommen könne.
'He asked her why she could not come along.'

Imperatives in Indirect Speech:

An imperative (3.165; 3.226) is rendered in indirect speech by the special subjunctive of mögen, sollen, nicht dürfen, or haben/sein + zu (3.2214):

Er bat mich: "Komm mich besuchen!"
'He requested: "Come and visit me!"'
Er bat mich, ich solle/möge ihn besuchen kommen.
'He requested that I should come and visit him.'
Er sagte uns: "Laßt Euch davon nicht ärgern!"
'He told us: "Do not get angry about it!"'
Er sagte uns, wir dürften uns davon nicht ärgern lassen.
'He told us we should not get angry about it.'

Er befahl ihr: "Schreiben Sie den Brief!"
'He commanded her: "Write the letter!"'
Er befahl ihr, sie habe den Brief zu schreiben.
'He commanded her to write the letter.'

Introduction of Indirect Speech:

Statements and imperatives may be given in the word order of main clauses in indirect speech (5.2ff), or the indirect speech can be introduced by daß and transformed into a subordinate clause (5.332):

Er erzählte, sie hätten sich darüber gefreut.
Er erzählte, daß sie sich darüber gefreut hätten.
'He reported (that) they had been pleased about it.'

Since indirect speech is very frequent in the indicative mood, it can be introduced in the early stages of German instruction, first as a main clause (Was hat er gesagt? - Er hat gesagt, er kommt heute.), then with a subordinate clause (daß er heute kommt). Only in more advanced classes should the whole paradigm of forms be used; otherwise it suffices to teach only the er-form.

3.2252 Other Uses of Special Subjunctive

As in English, some formulas of wishes or rules are expressed in the special subjunctive:

Lang lebe der König!	'Long live the king!'
Er lebe hoch!	'May he live (well)/(be praised)'

Gott sei Dank! — 'Thank goodness!'
Mögest du glücklich sein! — 'May you be happy!'

In recipes and prescriptions, the special subjunctive is used in formulas:

Man nehme zwei Pfund Butter. 'Take two pounds of butter.'
Man nehme stündlich eine Tablette. 'Take one pill every hour.'

The form siehe 'refer to, compare' is used in older reference works.

3.226 Use of Imperative

The imperative (forms: 3.165) is used to express an order, command, request, threat, advice, or warning. The form of the imperative depends on the pronoun of address used by the speaker to the receiver of the command (familiar sg: du, pl: ihr; formal sg and pl: Sie). Any imperative can be modified by bitte or emphasized by doch, nur, ja or bloß (3.222).

Gib mir doch bitte ein Stück Papier!
Gebt mir bloß ein Stück Papier!
Geben Sie mir nur ein Stück Papier!
'Give me a piece of paper!'

Several other grammatical structures can be employed to give commands:

Modal Verbs:

The modals sollen, müssen and wollen (3.2233) can be used in commands:

Du sollst (mußt) jetzt etwas essen!
Wollt ihr jetzt etwas essen!
'You must eat something now.'

Command including Speaker:

If a command is given in which the speaker includes himself, the wir-form is used:

Gehen wir heute ins Theater!
'Let us go to the theater today.'

Command with lassen:

The formal equivalent to the English 'let us' can be expressed by lassen plus infinitive, and it also includes the speaker:

Laß (laßt, lassen Sie) uns tanzen!
'Let us dance.'

Indicative Active:

Instead of the imperative forms, a statement in the indicative active (3.221) can be used with imperative intonation:

Du siehst (ihr seht, Sie sehen) dich (euch, sich) jetzt vor!
'You watch out now!

An even stronger command can be formed with the future indicative (3.173):

Du wirst (ihr werdet, Sie werden) dich (euch, sich) vorsehen!
'You had better watch out now!'

Indicative Passive:

An impersonal passive (3.181) can be used as a command:

Es wird sich jetzt vorgesehen! Jetzt wird sich vorgesehen!

This form has no English equivalent.

Infinitive:

When the number of people is undefined, the infinitive functions as an imperative:

Zurücktreten! Einsteigen bitte!
'Step back!' ('All aboard!')

Past Participle:

A harsh and impersonal command is given with the past participle (3.1513):

Aufgepaßt! Stillgestanden! Hiergeblieben!
('Pay attention! Stand still! Stay here!')

haben/sein + zu + Infinitive:

A command can be exprssed with haben+zu+infinitive (3.2234) if an action in the active voice is commanded:

Du hast (ihr habt, Sie haben) jetzt aufzupassen!
'You have to pay attention now!'

If the passive voice is underlying the command, sein+zu+infinitive is used:

Das Buch ist zurückzugeben!
('The book must be returned.')

Noun:

An impersonal command can be expressed by a noun:

Achtung! Vorsicht! 'Attention! Caution!'

Adjective:

Adjectives also can be used as commands:

Langsamer! Schnell! 'Slower! Faster!'

3.23 Use of Voices

The two voices in German (<Latin genus verbi 'type of verb') (e Aktionsart) are the active (3.16-3.175) and the passive (3.18-3.183) voice.

3.231 Use of Active Voice

The active voice is used to describe an action, a process, or a state of being. In an action, the emphasis is on the originator of the action, the actor. In a process or a state or being, the actor is usually incapable of an action.

ACTION	PROCESS	STATE OF BEING
Er schließt die Tür. 'He closes the door.'	Die Tür schließt sich. 'The door closes by itself.'	Die Tür ist grün. 'The door is green.'

In an action, the actor, knowingly or unknowingly, causes that which happens; therefore, the attention is directed to the actor.

3.232 Use of Passive Voice

Passive is the grammatical device by which an action is described as a process by removing the grammatical subject from the foreground:

ACTIVE-ACTION	PASSIVE - PROCESS
Hans schließt die Tür. 'Hans closes the door.'	Die Tür wird (von Hans) geschlossen. 'The door is closed (by Hans).'

Since mention of the actor is optional in the passive sentence, passive constructions are frequently used in description in which the actor is irrelevant or would appear redundant. For this reason, the passive voice is often used in scientific reports, instructions, or rules.

For a discussion of statal/apparent/false passive, see section 3.242.

3.24 Use of Non-Finite Forms

The non-finite verb forms - infinitives (3.151) and the present (3.153) and past participles (3.152) - are versatile, since they can be nominalized (4.15) and function as subjects, objects or whole clauses (5.332). The participles can also be adjectives (4.14ff).

3.241 Use of Infinitive

Morphologically, the infinitive present and perfect are the basis for the formation of tenses and moods (3.16, 3.17), and voices (3.18).

The infinitives can also function syntactically as com-

plements of other verbs:

werden + infinitive present/perfect, active/passive = future or future perfect (3.173, 3.174) or assumptions (3.2232).

Modal verbs are complemented by the infinitive present/perfect, active/passive with subjective or objective meaning (3.2232).

The compound tenses of modals with infinitive present are formed with an apparent double infinitive (3.151):

Er muß kommen. Er hat/hatte/wird kommen müssen.

An infinitive present active can follow the verbs hören, sehen, helfen and lassen. Two sentences are underlying this construction, known as accusative with infinitive:

Ich sehe ihn. Er kommt. >Ich sehe ihn kommen.

In these cases, the compound tenses are formed with an apparent double infinitive, as in the case of modals:

Ich habe/hatte/werde ihn kommen/sehen/hören/lassen.
'I have seen/heard/let him come.'
Ich habe ihm das Haus bauen helfen.[1]
'I helped him build the house.'

These verbs and their use with infintive should be introduced and practiced together with modals.

After kommen, fahren, gehen, bleiben and lernen, an infinitive present denotes an activity:

Er kommt/fährt/geht einkaufen.	'He comes/goes shopping.'
Wir bleiben hier wohnen.	'We continue living here.'
Sie lernen jetzt schwimmen.	'They are learning to swim now.'

Here, the present and past perfect are formed with the past participle of the finite verb:

Er ist einkaufen gekommen/gefahren/gegangen.
('He came to shop.') 'He went (drove) shopping.'

Wir sind hier wohnen geblieben.
'We continued living here.'

Sie haben jetzt schwimmen gelernt.
'Now they've learned to swim.'

Since English uses the progressive form or the infinitive with 'to' in these instances, the use of the German infinitive must be practiced. The formation of compound tenses should be introduced together with the compound tenses of all other verbs, except modals and those in (3) above.

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[1] helfen is also used with infinitive and zu: Ich habe ihm geholfen, das Haus zu bauen.

All infinitives can be nominalized as das-nouns (4.12):

Das Rauchen ist ungesund. 'Smoking is unhealthy.'

3.2411 Use of Infinitive with zu

The use of the infinitive (present/perfect, active/passive with zu is identical to the English infinitive with 'to:'

Er bittet sie mitzugehen. 'He asks her to go along.'

This infinitive with zu is the nucleus of a construction and can be expanded. When expanded, the infinitive construction is divided by a comma from the main clause:

Er bittet sie, ins Theater mitzukommen.
'He asks her to go along to the theater.'

The infinitive with zu is used after haben and sein (3.2233) and after brauchen. Infinitive constructions have a transformational relationship to daß-clauses (5.332) and to modifier clauses of purpose (5.3344).

3.242 Use of Past Participle

The past participle (3.152) denotes a completed action, or a process or state of being that has ended. The past participle is used in both the verb phrase and in the noun phrase.

Within the verb phrase, the past participle is used for the formation of compound tenses (3.171-3.172; 3.174; 3.175) and for the formation of the passive voice (3.18ff).

Within the noun phrase, the past participle functions as an adjective (4.14ff) and is inflected accordingly:

die verkaufte Braut; die verbotene Frucht; das verbrannte Kind.
'the bartered bride; the forbidden fruit; the burnt child'

Like all adjectives, the past participle can be nominalized when it specifies a noun denoting a person or thing (4.145):

der Verletzte; die Angestellte; das Erwartete
'the injured (man); the (female) employee; the expected (thing)'

Within the predicate of clauses (3.31ff; 5.2ff), the past participle can function as the complement of linking verbs (e Kopula) (3.312), such as sein, scheinen, wirken and aussehen 'be, seem, look:'

Das Auto ist verkauft. Der Arbeiter wirkt ermüdet.
'The car is sold.' 'The worker appears tired.'

The construction of sein + past participle expresses a state of being and is often called 'statal/apparent passive.' However, this term is unfortunate and confusing.

In English, no distinction is made between an action or process expressed in German by the passive voice and a state of being expressed in German by sein + past participle:

PROCESS/ACTION	RESULT OF PROCESS/STATE OF BEING
Das Auto wird verkauft. 'The car is (being) sold.'	Das Auto ist verkauft. 'The car is sold.'

Instead of relating the state of being (sein + past participle) to the passive voice (werden + past participle) (both 'to be' in English), the state of being should be introduced by treating the past participle as an adjective complementing certain verbs, and be called 'predicate adjective.' There is no structural difference between Das Auto ist verkauft and Das Auto ist rot. If this construction is called 'statal passive' (s Zustandspassiv), confusion with the passive voice inevitably results.

For discussion of past participle as predicate adjective and participial constructions, see sections 3.313 and 5.413, respectively.

3.243 Use of the Present Participle

Within the verb phrase, the present participle has no function for tense and voice formation.

Within the noun phrase, the present participle is used in a manner parallel to that of the past participle.

Present participles can be inflected adjectives modifying nouns (4.14ff):

die spielenden Kinder; der wartende Freund; die singende Dame
'the playing children; the waiting friend; the singing lady'

They can also be nominalized (4.145):

die Reisenden; der Wartende; die Singende; das Kommende
'the traveling (ones); the waiting (man); the singing (woman); the coming (thing)'

The present participle, like the past participle can be complement of linking verbs (3.242), functioning as a predicate adjective:

Seine Behauptung ist/wirkt/scheint nicht überzeugend.
'His statement is not/does not appear/seem convincing.'

There are, however, constraints on which present participles are used, and they occur much less frequently than the past participles.

Present participles can be combined with an adverb or a noun:

Die Ruhe tut wohl. - Die Ruhe ist wohltuend.
'Rest is beneficial.'
Terpentin löst den Schmutz. - Terpentin ist schmutzlösend.
'Terpentine dissolves dirt. - Terpentine is dirt-dissolving.'

For a discussion of present participles as predicate adjectives and participial constructions, see sections 3.313 and 5.413, respectively.

3.3 The Verb Phrase as Syntactical Unit

3.31 Predicate

The verb phrase functions syntactically in sentences and clauses (5.ff) as the predicate (<Latin praedicare 'to proclaim') (s Prädikat, e Satzaussage).

The core of the verb phrase and, therefore, of the predicate, is the finite verb (3.12-3.142).

The finite verb can be complemented by other verbal forms, such as infinitives (3.151) or past participles (3.152) for the formation of tenses, moods and voices (3.17-3.18). Some verbs are complemented by adiectives (4.14) or by nouns (4.12). The finite verb together with its complements, constitutes the predicate. The constituents of the predicate will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

3.311 Finite Verb

Relatively few verbs can stand alone without complements in sentences and clauses.

Er lebt. 'He is alive. He lives.'

However, leben in the sense of 'to reside' must take a complement:

Er lebt in Köln. 'He lives in Cologne.'

Those verbs which do not require complements are:

Verbs which denote a change in state of being which is complete in itself, for example:

aufwachen, erwachen	'to wake up'
sterben	'to die'
verhungern	'to starve'
schmelzen	'to melt'

Verbs which indicate a habitual or lasting action which is complete in itself, for example:

essen	'to eat'
trinken	'to drink'
studieren	'to study'

blühen 'to bloom'
brennen 'to burn'
singen 'to sing' etc.

Modal verbs always take a complement, (although the complement may be suppressed in context, 3.223); most transitive verbs also require complements (3.342). The so-called 'linking verbs' (>Latin copula 'band': e Kopula)

sein 'to be'
bleiben 'to remain'
wirken 'to seem'
scheinen 'to seem'

always require a complement.

The prefix of separable verbs (3.131) belongs to the finite verb:

Wir kaufen jetzt ein. 'We shop now.' 'We are now shopping.'

For a discussion of the position of the predicate, see sections 5.221 and 5.32.

3.312 Finite Verb + Infinitive

The obligatory complement of modal verbs (3.223) is an infinitive:

Er kann/will/muß/soll/darf/möchte mitgehen.
'He can/wants to/must/is supposed to/would like to go along.'

In the perfect tenses, if the infinitive of the main verb is expressed, two infinitives stand at the end of the clause:

Er hat mitgehen müssen. 'He has had to go along.'

The auxiliary werden is also complemented by an infinitive to express the future tense (3.173) or an assumption (3.2232):

Er wird mitgehen. 'He will/might go along.'

These infinitives are part of the predicate.

In contrast, infinitives which can occasionally follow the verbs hören, helfen, lassen and sehen are not part of the predicate, since they express an underlying second clause:

Ich sehe ihn kommen. : Ich sehe es. Er kommt.
'I see him coming.' : 'I see it.' 'He is coming.'

Traditionally, this construction is known as "accusative + infinitve."

No other verbs can be complemented by a pure infinitive. However, many verbs are complemented by an infinitive with zu (3.2411):

Er braucht nicht zu kommen. 'He does not have to come.'

Sie begann zu weinen. 'She started to cry.'

Those verbs whose valence includes a subordinate clause (3.333) can transform this subordinate clause into an infinitive with zu:

Er glaubt, daß er träumt. = Er glaubt zu träumen.
'He believes that he dreams.' ('He believes he is dreaming.')

Haben and sein, in the sense of 'must,' are used with zu (3.2411).

3.313 Finite Verb + Past Participle

The auxiliaries haben, sein and werden are complemented by a past participle for the formation of compound tenses and the passive voice:

haben/sein + past participle = present/past perfect (3.171-3.172)
werden + past participle = passive voice (3.18-3.183)

Another group of verbs, the linking verbs (3.242), can be complemented by a past participle which functions as a predicate adjective. The verbs are sein, wirken, scheinen, klingen and aussehen:

Er ist/scheint/klingt verwundet. 'He is/seems/sounds injured.'

If any other verb is followed by a past participle, that past participle is not a part of the predicate. It is a non-obligatory modifier, which serves the function of an adverb (3.411):

Er spricht erfahren - Er spricht weise.
'He speaks knowingly - He speaks wisely.'

3.314 Finite Verb + Present Participle

Parallel to the use of the past participle above, the present participle functions as a predicate adjective after the linking verbs:

Diese Nachtricht ist/scheint/klingt überraschend.
'This news is/seems/sounds surprising.'

Since there are constraints which verbs can form a present participle to function as a predicate adjective, the violation of these constraints and the transfer of the English progressive form causes mistakes, such as Er ist singend.

Sie lachte schallend - Sie lachte laut.
'She laughed resoundingly - She laughed loudly.'

Since past participles and present participles function in the same manner as adjectives after the linking verbs, they are treated in the following discussions as predicate adjectives.

3.315 Finite Verb + Adjective

Only the auxiliaries sein and werden and the verbs bleiben, wirken, scheinen and aussehen can be complemented by an adjective, called a predicate adjective.

> Er ist/wird/wirkt arm. 'He is/becomes/appears poor.'
> Er scheint/wirkt/bleibt gesund. 'He seems/appears/remains healthy.'

Particularly common is the combination of sein + adjective forming the predicate of many clauses: dankbar, zufrieden, müde, glücklich sein 'to be thankful, content, tired, happy.'

Modifiers such as present and past participles, which complement verbs other than the above are adverbs and non-obligatory modifiers (3.411).

3.316 Finite Verb + Nominative

A noun in the nominative case (4.211) is called a 'predicate nominative' when it is the complement of the verbs sein, werden, bleiben or heißen:

> Er ist/wird/bleibt Lehrer. 'He is/is going to be/remains a teacher.'
> Sie heißt Inge. ('Her name is Inge.')

No other verb can be complemented by a noun in the nominative case.

3.317 Constituents of the Predicate

The predicate, then, consists of the finite verb and its complements. In a main clause (5.22), the complements of the finite verb stand in the terminal slot (5.221).

The following chart summarizes the main combinations of finite verb and its complements. The chart does not reflect modals+infinitive perfect (3.2232) or the perfect and past perfect tenses of copula + adjective (Er ist krank gewesen).

3.32 Congruence between Subject and Predicate

A close connection between the finite verb and its subject exists through the formal correspondence called agreement or congruence (<Latin congruentia 'equality') (e Kongruenz). Verbs are inflected according to the person and number of their subject (3.141).

When the subject consistss of several nouns or their representatives (3.331), the finite verb is in the sie-form:

> Hans und Inge gehen ins Kino. 'Hans and Inge go to the show.'

But if disjunctive conjunctions such as oder, entweder... oder, weder...noch (4.17) connect several nouns in the subject, the finite verb is in the er-form:

FINITE VERB +	COMPLEMENT(S) =	PREDICATE TENSE, VOICE	EXAMPLES: SUBJ	FINITE VERB	COMPLEMENTS
few	(none)	present/past active	Er	lebt	
all	separable prefix		Er	kauft	ein
modal	infinitive	future active	Er	muß	kaufen
werden			Er	wird	kaufen
sein werden wirken bleiben	adjective	present/past active	Er	ist	krank
	past participle		Er	wirkt	
	pres. participle		Er	bleibt	reizend
heißen	noun, nominat.		Er	heißt	Hans
werden	past participle	pres./past passive	Er	wird	gesehen
haben/sein		perf./past perf. active	Er	hat	gesehen
haben	2 infinitives	perf./past perf. active with modals	Er	hat	sehen müssen
werden		future active w/modal	Er	wird	sehen müssen
sein	2 past partic.	perf./past perf. pass.	Er	ist	gesehen worden
werden	1 past part. + 1 infinitive	future perf. active	Er	wird	gesehen haben
		future passive	Er	wird	gesehen werden
haben	1 past part + 2 infinitive	perf./past perf. passive w/modal	Er	hat	gesehen werden müssen
werden		fut./pass. w/modal	Er	wird	gesehen werden müssen
werden	2 past part. 1 infinitive	fut. perf. passive	Er	wird	gesehen worden sein

Entweder Hans oder Inge kommt heute. 'Either Hans or Inge is coming.'

If the subject contains a mass noun such as eine Anzahl, Menge, Masse, Schar or Gruppe in the singular, the finite verb is also in the singular:

Eine Menge junger Leute besuchte- die Hochzeit.
'A number of young people attended the wedding.'

If grammatically different persons, expressed by the personal pronouns, are the subject, the finite verb is in the wir-form if it contains ich:

Du und ich leben gern in Hamburg.
'You and I like to live in Hamburg.'

If the subject contains du and several pronouns other than ich, the finite verb is in the ihr-form:

Du und er schlieft immer zu lange.
'You and he always slept late.'

3.33 Valence of the Predicate

Valence (<Latin valere 'to be valid, to be worth' (e Valenz, e Wertigkeit) means the capacity or necessity of predicates to be complemented by noun phrases (4.ff), functioning as subject and objects. Such nominal complements of predicates are obligatory and cannot be deleted without rendering a sentence ungrammatical.

Wir erwarten den Freund. *Wir erwarten.
'We expect the friend.' 'We expect.'

Although in the actual practice of speaking, obligatory complements of predicates are sometimes deleted when understood through the context, their presence is obligatory in the description of the syntax of verb phrases. It is mainly the verb or the predicate adjective which determines the type of complement required. They can only have certain obligatory complements but not others:

Wir arbeiten an dem Buch. *Wir arbeiten das Buch.
'We work at the book.' 'We work the book.'
Er ist über das Geschenk glücklich.
'He is happy about the gift.'
*Er ist das Geschenk glücklich.
'He is happy the gift.'

The verb arbeiten and the adjective glücklich require a prepositional object and cannot be complemented by accusative objects. The violation of such constraints results in ungrammatical sentences.

Predicates, therefore, must be described for their obligatory complements in their syntactical environment. A full description of predicates includes the grammatical, structural specification, e.g. fragen + accusative object, but antworten + dative object, and a semantic specification,

e.g. *fragen* + human object to avoid sentences such as **Ich frage den Tisch*. 'I ask the table.'

In many textbooks and handbooks, this valence is indicated by formulas such as 'to give something to somebody' *jemandem etwas geben*, or to be sure of something/somebody' *sich jemandes/etwas sicher sein*. Many German handbooks call the valence of verbs and adjectives in the predicate *e Rektion*.

3.331 Subject

The subject (<Latin *subiectum* 'thrown under') (*s Subjekt*, *r Satzgegenstand*) is the originator of actions or the reason for a situation or a state of being. Subjects in clauses and sentences are noun phrases in the nominative case (4.211).

Subjects of clauses and sentences can be elicited by the interrogatives *wer*? 'who' for persons, and *was*? 'what' for things (4.165):

> *Das Kind spielt im Garten. Wer spielt im Garten? Das Kind.*
> 'The child is playing in the garden. Who is playing? The child.'
> *Die Rose ist rot. Was ist rot? Die Rose.*
> 'The rose is red. What is red? The rose.'

The structural valence assigns a subject to each verb. Some verbs are used impersonally; their subject is either *es* or an inanimate subject. Such verbs primarily describe incidents of weather (*es donnert*, *es regnet*), of growth (*es grünt*, *die Rose blüht*) or of noises (*es kracht*, *die Glocke läutet*). Verbs of physical or mental feeling, such as *es friert/hungert/bekümmert mich*, *es tut mir leid/weh* can delete the subject by moving the object to the beginning of the clause: *Mich friert* (5.222).

The semantic specification of the valence of verbs indicates what kind of subject can be selected for each verb. Subjects can be roughly divided into the following semantic categories:

Human, often including abstract (abbreviated hum)

> *Das Kind fürchtet sich vor der Dunkelheit.*
> 'The child is afraid of the dark.'
> *Die Gemeinde fürchtet sich vor höheren Steuern.*
> 'The community is afraid of higher taxes.'

Animal (abbreviated anim)

> *Der Hund fürchtet sich vor dem Wolf.*
> 'The dog is afraid of the wolf.'

Inanimate (inan)

> *Der Tisch ist groß.*
> 'The table is big.'

The semantic specification of the subject (S) of the verb sich fürchten is therefore:

sich fürchten S + hum + anim − inan

Since such semantic selections are largely identical in English and in German, it is rarely necessary to specify such selections for each verb. Students would not form a sentence such as *Der Tisch fürchtet sich.

3.332 Object

In addition to its subject, each predicate (i.e. verb or predicate adjective; 3.31ff) has a fixed number of nominal complements, called objects, which are determined by the valence of the predicate and without which the utterance is ungrammatical. These nominal complements are obligatory. (<Latin obiectum 'thrown toward') (s Objekt, e Satzergänzung).

The valence of predictes is described by the number of obligatory (and, sometimes, facultative) nominal complments, the type and the semantic selection of the complements:

Number of Nominal Complements:

The obligatory complements of predicates can be counted. Occasionally, faculatative complements must be indicated, e.g., verkaufen 'to sell' has the obligatory valence of 2 and one facultative complement:

Er verkauft Autos. 'He sells cars.'
Er verkauft Eva ein Auto. 'He sells Eva a car.'

In the first example, the subject er and the accusative object constitute, together with the predicate, a full utterance. The dative object Eva in the second sentence is facultative. Therefore, the valence of verkaufen can be described numerically thus:

$\text{verkaufen}_{2(3)}$

Sometimes, the number of nominal complements can change the meaning of a predicate. For instance, geben in the sense of 'to give' has the valence 3:

geben_3 'to give' Er gibt der Freundin Geld.
'He gives the girl friend money.'

However, geben in the sense of 'there is, there are' has the valence 2 with its subject es and an accusative object:

geben_2 'to be' Es gibt keinen Blumenkohl.
'There is no cauliflower.'

Adjectives and participles in the verb phrase which function as predicate adjectives (3.313-3.315) also have nominal complements:

nützlich $\text{sein}_{1(2)}$ 'to be useful'

Das Buch ist (jedem Lehrer) nützlich.
'The book is useful (for every teacher).'

The maximum number of obligatory nominal complements is three, and rarely is there more than one facultative complement.

Types of Complements:

The type of obligatory and facultative nominal complements of predicates is also determined by the valence of the verb or adjective in the predicate. These complements can be elicited by interrogative pronouns. Verbs and adjectives can or must require:

Subject (S), elicited by wer? 'who?' or was? 'what?'

erwachen$_1$	Er erwacht. 'He wakes up.' Wer erwacht? 'Who wakes up?'
alt sein$_1$	Das Auto ist alt. 'The car is old.' Was ist alt? 'What is old?'

Accusative Object (AO), elicited by wen? 'whom?' or was? 'what?'

sehen$_2$	Wir sehen den Freund/den Film. 'We see the friend/the movie.' Wen/was sehen wir? 'Whom/what do we see?'

Dative object (DO), elicited by wem? '(to)whom?'

danken$_2$	Sie dankt der Tante 'She thanks the aunt.' Wem dankt sie? 'Whom does she thank?'
treu sein$_2$	Er ist ihr treu. 'He is faithful to her.' Wem ist er treu? 'To whom is he faithful?'

Genitive Object (GO) (rare), elicited by wessen? 'of whom/what?'

bedürfen$_2$	Sie bedarf des Trostes. ('She needs consolation') Wessen bedarf sie? ('What does she need?')

Accusative and Dative Objects (AO + DO)

geben$_3$	Sie gibt ihm Blumen. 'She gives him flowers.' Wem gibt sie Blumen? 'To whom does she give flowers?' Was gibt sie ihm? 'What does she give him?'

Prepositional Object (PO), elicited by preposition + interrogative in the case determined by the preposition for persons (e.g., durch wen? 'through whom?' mit wem? 'with whom?') and wo+preposition for things (e.g., womit 'with what?') (4.165)

denken$_2$	Wir denken an die Freunde/an das Geld. 'We think of the friends/of the money.' An wen denken wir? 'Of whom do we think?' Woran denken wir? 'Of what do we think?'

These types of obligatory complements of verbs and adjectives in the predicate will be discussed in detail in the following paragraphs. Knowledge of the valence of predicates and the grammatical types of complements allows predictions regarding the structure of sentences and clauses and their constituents (5.ff).

Semantic Specification of Complements:

Very few German verbs differ from English verbs in their semantic selection; therefore, only for these is a specific semantic description necessary.

For instance, the English sentence 'He succeeded in his experiment' is translated into German, in analogy to Er gewann in der Lotterie or other sentences, wrongly as *Er gelang bei seinem Versuch. The semantic choice and selection of 'succeed' in English allows a subject + human. Yet German gelingen has a subject -human, -animal, +inanimate, and a dative object + human. Therefore, the correct sentence is Der Versuch gelang ihm.

Violation of the semantic constraints resulted in an ungrammatical sentence. In the following, only those semantic specifications which differ from English will be indicated.

3.3321 Predicates with Accusative Object

The most frequent object is the accusative object, which can be expressed by the same parts of speech as the subject but in the accusative case (4.212). The majority of verbs require accusative objects, especially those with the inseparable prefixes be-, durch-, über- and hinter-, and causative verbs such as stellen, legen, setzen, hängen and fällen (3.134).

Dictionaries usually indicate whether or not a verb is transitive (<Latin transire 'to go over') (transitiv); that is, whether or not the verb requires an accusative object complement.

Generally, the passive voice (3.18) can be formed from verbs with accusative objects:

Sie befragt ihn.	Er wird von ihr befragt.
'She questions him.'	'He is questioned by her.'

The expression of the accusative object in clauses is obligatory in most instances.

Just as a subordinate clause introduced by daß or by questionwords functioning as conjunctions can express the subject (5.3321), so can the accusative object be expressed by subordinate clauses or by infinitive with zu (SC: inf + zu):

Er weiß (es), daß/wann/wie/wo/warum das Haus abgebrannt ist.

Thus, the valence of wissen is described as

wissen$_2$ 'to know'

S + hum	Wir wissen das noch nicht. 'We do not know that yet.'
AO pron/SC	Sie weiß (es), wann er kommt. 'She knows when he will come.'

Three verbs require a double accusative object: lehren 'to teach,' nennen 'to call' and kosten 'to cost.'

Die Mutter lehrt ihre Kinder die deutsche Sprache.
'The mother teaches her children the German languge.'

Er nannte seinen Bruder einen Idioten.
'He called his brother an idiot.'

Die Reise kostet ihn keinen Pfennig.
'The trip does not cost him a penny.'

However, nennen 'to quote' requires an accusative and a dative object: Sie nannte ihm den Preis. 'She quoted the price to him.'

A few past participles, functioning as predicate adjectives, require the accusative, such as gewöhnt sein:

Er ist gutes Essen gewöhnt. 'He is used to good food.'

However, in most instances, the same sense can be expressed by a prepositional object (3.3325).

3.3322 Predicates with Dative Object

A number of verbs require a dative object (4.213), particularly separable verbs with the prefixes ab-, an-, auf-, bei, entgegen-, nach-, vor- and zu- (3.131, 4.15ff):

Der Hund läuft seinem Herrn nach.
('The dog follows his master.')

Wir wohnten der Konferenz bei.
('We participated in the conference.')

A small group of verbs with dative objects are idiomatic:

antworten, danken, folgen, glauben, gleichen, helfen,
'to answer, thank follow, believe, resemble, help
vertrauen
trust'

Sie antwortet/dankt/hilft/vertraut ihrem Lehrer.
'She answers/ thanks/helps/trusts her teacher.'

Such verbs can be remembered by transforming the English equivalent into a noun phrase: 'thank - to give thanks to.'

Numerous impersonal verbs require the dative:

Es tut mir leid. ('I am sorry.')
Es geht ihm gut. ('He is well.')

Adjectives and past participles derived from the above

verbs also require the dative:

verantwortlich, dankbar, folgsam, glaubhaft, gleich, behilflich and vertraut sein:

Sie ist dem Lehrer verantwortlich/dankbar/folgsam/behilflich. 'She is responsible/grateful/obedient/helpful to the teacher.'

Additional adjectives are:

dienlich, nützlich, möglich, schädlich, angenehm, lieb, treu, bekannt, fremd, recht and wichtig
'helpful, useful, possible, harmful, pleasant, dear, faithful, known, strange, right, important'

Das ist ihm nützlich/möglich/lieb/bekannt/wichtig.
'That is useful to/possible for/dear to/known to/important to him.'

In most cases, the dative object is +human or +abstract.

3.33221 Reflexive Predicates

One group of verbs has a reflexive pronoun (4.1611) as the obligatory complement. This group is substantially larger in German than it is in English. Verbs must be learned with their reflexive, e.g. sich bemühen 'to try hard.'

Verbs with obligatory reflexives are primarily of two semantic categories:

Verbs indicating an emotion, for example:

sich schämen 'to be ashamed' sich sorgen 'to worry'
sich freuen 'to be happy' sich ärgern 'to be angry'

Verbs indicating a bodily movement, for example:

sich bücken 'to bend down' sich beeilen 'to hurry'
sich erheben 'to get up' sich begeben 'to go' or 'to happen'

A few predicate adjectives (3.312-3.314) also require a reflexive:

sich bewußt sein 'to be aware'

All other verbs can have a reflexive complement facultatively when the action refers back to the subject:

Du fragst ihn. Du fragst dich.
'You ask him. You ask yourself.'
Du hilfst ihm. Du hilfst dir.
'You help him. You help yourself.'

The case of the reflexive is determined by the valence of the verb (3.3ff). However, if a transitive verb is used reflexively, the reflexive is in the accusative case when no other object is contained in the clause:

Du wäschst dich. 'You wash yourself.'

If another nominal object follows, the reflexive is in the dative case:

Du wäschst dir die Hände. ('You wash your hands.')
Bist du dir der Schuld bewußt? ('Are you aware of the guilt?')

Yet if the second object is prepositional, the reflexive remains in the accusative:

Du freust dich über das Geschenk. ('You are happy about the gift.')

Some verbs have a different meaning when they are used reflexively:

erinnern AO an 'to remind someone of something'
sich erinnern an A 'to remember'
Wir erinnern ihn an die Verabredung. 'We remind him of the appointment.'
Wir erinnern uns an die Jugend. 'We remember (our) youth.'
enthalten AO 'to contain'
sich enthalten OG 'to refrain from'
Der Brief enthält gute Nachrichten. 'The letter contains good news.'
Er enthält sich einer Bemerkung. ('He refrains from a remark.')

Reflexive pronouns can also be contained in prepositional phrases:

Sie legt den Mantel über sich. 'She puts the coat over herself.'
Sie legt den Mantel über ihn. 'She puts the coat over him.'

In addition, reflexives can function in alternate expressions of the passive voice (3.183):

Der Wünsch läßt sich erfüllen.
Der Wunsch erfüllt sich. ('The wish can be fulfilled.')

For a discussion of reflexive pronouns, see sections 4.1611 and 4.25.

3.3323 Predicates with Dative and Accusative Objects

Verbs which take accusative object complements can, in many cases, also have a dative object indicating a person to whom the action is directed:

Wir haben unserem Freund das Geld gegeben.
'We gave our friend the money.'

The valence of some verbs permits either a dative object or a prepositional object (3.3325):

Du schreibst deinem Vater einen Brief.
'You write your father a letter.'

Du schreibst einen Brief an deinen Vater.
'You write a letter to your father.'

Therefore, the valence of schreiben is described thus:

schreiben$_3$ 'write'

S_{+hum}	Er schreibt. 'He writes.'
AO +inan	Er schreibt ein Buch. 'He writes a book.'
DO +hum	Er schreibt dem Verleger. 'He writes (to) the publisher.'
or PO an A	Er schreibt an den Verleger. 'He writes to the publisher.'

3.3324 Predicates with Genitive Object

Since the genitive case (4.214) is used less frequently in modern German, only few verbs, particularly those in legal language, require that case:

anklagen, beschuldigen, entheben, verdächtigen
'to indict, accuse, remove, suspect'

Er klagt ihn des Diebstahls an. Er beschuldigt ihn des Diebstahls. 'He indicts him for/accuses him of theft.'

A few predicate adjectives are also used with the genitive, although it is generally avoided in spoken German:

sicher, müde, wert, würdig, sich bewußt sein
'to be sure, tired, worth, worthy, conscious'

Sie ist der Arbeit sicher/müde/würdig.
'She is sure/tired/worthy of the work.'

To avoid such genitives, other constructions are used, such as:

Sie ist sicher, daß sie die Arbeit bekommt.
'She is sure that she will get the job.'
Sie will nicht länger arbeiten.
'She does not want to work any longer.'
Sie verdient die Arbeit.
'She deserves the job.'

3.3325 Predicates with Prepositional Objects

Many verbs have a prepositional object as their complement, either instead of, or in addition to, other objects. Such verbs are becomming more common, since bureaucratic writing writing prefers a nominal style for example, by using instead verbinden, a construction such as in Verbindung setzen, bringen or kommen. (4.211)

Some transitive verbs (3.3321) with the prefixes be- or durch- can be transformed into intransitive verbs without

prefix and with a prepositional object:

Sie beantwortet die Frage nicht. 'She does not answer the
Sie antwortet nicht auf die Frage. question.'

Such verbs are beachten-achten auf 'watch, observe,' beweinen-weinen über 'lament,' bekämpfen-kämpfen gegen 'battle' and durchfahren-fahren durch 'traverse.'

Like accusative objects, prepositional objects can be transformed into subordinate clauses introduced by daß or questions words with the function of conjunctions. The main clause may contain a prepositional antecedent da+preposition (4.162; 5.332):

Er berichtet von seiner Reise. 'He reports about his trip.'

Er berichtet davon, daß/wie/wann er eine Reise gemacht hat. 'He reports that/how/when he took a trip.'

Not all prepositional objects are obligatory complements of verbs; if a prepositional object is used, its preposition is determined by the valence of the verb.

The most frequent prepositions in prepositional objects are:

With accusative: an, auf, für, gegen, in and um (4.151)
With dative: an, auf, in, mit, nach, von and zu (4.152)

Since students will generally use für 'for,' gegen 'against,' in 'in,' mit 'with,' über 'about,' von 'from,' and zu 'to' correctly because of their similarity to English, the following list contains only those commonly used verbs with prepositional object which differ in English and German:

an + Accusative

denken an	'think of'
erinnern an	'remind (someone) of;'
sich erinnern an	'remember'
gewöhnen an	'get used to'
glauben an	'believe in'
senden/schicken an	'send to'
schreiben an	'write to'

an + Dative

arbeiten an	'work on/at'
beteiligen an	'participate in'
erkennen an	'recognize by'
fehlen/mangeln an	'lack'
hindern an	'hinder at/from'
leiden an	'suffer of/from/with'
sterben an	'die of'
teilnehmen an	'participate in'
zweifeln an	'doubt'

auf + Accusative

achten auf	'watch, observe, pay attention to'
antworten auf	'answer (a question)'
sich beziehen/ berufen auf	'refer to'
deuten auf	'point at'
sich freuen auf	'look forward to'
hoffen auf	'hope for'
rechnen auf	'count on'
hören auf	'hope for'
sich verlassen auf	'rely on'
vertrauen auf	'trust in'
warten auf	'wait for'
zeigen auf	'point at'

auf + Dative

beruhen auf	'be based (up)on'
beharren auf/ bestehen auf	'insist on'

aus + Dative

bestehen aus	'consist of'
entstehen aus	'originate from'
herstellen aus	'produce from'
schließen aus	'conclude from'

bei + Dative

wohnen, leben bei	'reside at/with'
arbeiten bei	'work at (a firm)'
bleiben bei	'remain at'

für + Accusative

begeistern für	'get enthusiastic about'
halten für	'consider as'
sich interessieren für	'be interested in'

in + Accusative

eintreten in	'enter into'
einwilligen in	'consent to'
sich verlieben in	'fall in love with'

in + Dative

sich irren in	'err in'
sich unterscheiden in	'distinguish in/by'

nach + Dative

greifen nach	'reach for'
forschen, suchen nach	'(re)search for'
sich sehnen nach	'long for'
fragen nach	'ask/inquire about'

sich erkundigen nach — 'inquire about'
riechen, schmecken nach — 'smell, taste of'

um + Accusative

bitten um — 'ask for'
sich bemühen um — 'strive for'
beneiden um — 'envy'
weinen um — 'cry for'
trauern um — 'mourn'
sich handeln um — 'concern'

von + Dative

abhängen von — 'depend on'
sprechen von — 'speak of/about'
träumen von — 'dream of'

vor + Dative

sich fürchten vor — 'be frightened of'
schützen vor — 'protect from'
verstecken vor — 'hide from'
warnen vor — 'warn of'
fliehen vor — 'flee from'

zu + Dative

gehören zu — 'belong to'
benutzen zu/ gebrauchen zu — 'use for'

Adjectives and past participles which are derived from verbs maintain the prepositional objects when they function as predicate adjectives:

sich fürchten vor+Dative
furchtsam sein vor+Dative

Similarly, the prepositional object remains when a verb phrase is dissolved into verb and accusative object, the latter derived from the verb (4.34):

Furcht haben vor+Dative

A few predicate adjectives have prepositional objects whose prepositions must be learned. The most important are:

an + Dative

arm an — 'lacking in'
reich an — 'rich in'

auf + Accusative

aufmerksam auf — 'observant of'
ärgerlich auf/ böse auf — 'angry at (a person)'
eifersüchtig auf/ neidisch auf — 'jealous of'

stolz auf — 'proud of'
neugierig auf — 'curious about'

in + Accusative

verliebt in — 'in love with'

über + Accusative

ärgerlich über/ böse über — 'angry about'
traurig über — 'sad about'

von + Dative

frei von — 'free from/of'
verschieden von — 'different from'
voll von — 'full with'

zu + Dative

bereit zu — 'ready for'

For discussion of further use of prepositions, see section 4.15ff.

3.333 Clause Constituent Plans

When the valence of verbs is known through the number, the type, and the semantic specification (3.332) of obligatory and facultative complements, insights into the syntactical constituents of clauses are possible. The valence of verbs, therefore, allows predictions as to the form and grammatical contents of clauses (r Satzbauplan).

Verbs which differ in use and, occasionally, in meaning when they are prefixed, are particularly complicated for students of German. The description of the valence shows in what manner such predicates are used., e.g.:

fragen 2(3) — 'to ask'

S +hum	Der Lehrer fragt den Schüler. 'The teacher asks the pupil.'
AO +hum +refl	Der Lehrer fragt den Schüler/sich. 'The teacher asks the pupil/himself.'
PO nach D all	Er fragt nach dem Buch/Kind/Hund. 'He asks about the book/child/dog.'
SC question	Er fragt, ob/wann/warum sie mitgeht. 'He asks whether/when/why she comes along.'

anfragen 2(3) — 'to inquire'

S +hum	Der Vater fragt an, ob es ihr gut geht. 'The father inquires if she is well.'
PO bei D -anim	Sie fragt bei der Schule an, ob... 'She inquires at school if...'

3.3325

SC question	Wir fragen an, ob/wann/warum es möglich ist. 'We inquire/if/when/why it is possible.'
befragen$_{2(3)}$	'to ask, inquire'
S + hum	Der Fremde befragt ihn nach dem Weg. 'The stranger asks him about the way.'
AO all	Er befragt den Schüler/das Lexikon. 'He asks the pupil.' ('He consults the dictionary.')
PO nach D all	Sie befragen den Polizisten nach dem Dom. 'They ask the policeman about the dome.'
über A all	Sie befragen ihn über das Museum. 'They ask him about the museum.'
erfragen$_{2(3)}$	'request, ask, elicit'
S +hum	Der Vater erfragt den Inhalt des Briefes. 'The father elicits the contents of the letter.'
AO all	Er erfragt den Direktor/die Stadtmitte. 'He elicits (the whereabouts of) the director/the city center.'
PO von D +hum	Sie erfragen von ihm eine Auskunft. 'They request information from him.'
SC question	Ich erfragte, wenn/wo es stattfindet. 'I asked when/where it was taking place.'
nachfragen$_{2(3)}$	'to inquire, ask, request information'
S +hum	Inge soll bei ihm nachfragen, ob... 'Inge should ask him whether...'
PO bei D 'animal	Er fragt bei der Direktion nach. 'He is making inquiries at the administration.'
über A all	Er fragt bei ihm über die Gründe nach. 'He asks him the reasons.'
SC question	Er fragt darüber nach, warum es geschah. 'He asks why it happened.'

Seen in a linear manner, the sentences resulting from the verbs above differ substantially:

SUBJ.	FINITE VERB	ACCUS. OBJ.	PREPOSIT. OBJ.	PREPOSIT. OBJ.	PREFIX	SUBORDINATE CLAUSE
Er	fragt	sie	--------	nach mir.	------	
		sie	--------	(danach),	------	wie es mir geht.
Er	fragt	---	bei ihr	--------	an,	wie es mir geht.
Er	befragt	sie	--------	nach mir.	------	----------
			--------	über mich.	------	----------
Er	erfragt	(es)	von ihr,	--------	------	wie es mir geht.
Er	fragt	---	bei ihr	(darüber)	nach,	wie es mir geht.

Therefore, it is important to point out the valence of verbs in the German classroom and to practice verbs in the context of clauses.

3.4 Modification of the Verb Phrase

3.41 Forms of Modifiers

Modifiers are those non-obligatory and facultative constituents of sentences and clauses (5.ff) which are not required by the valence of the predicate.

Modifiers function primarily in a semantic manner to indicate the circumstances under which an action or state of being occurs. Such circumstances can be of place (3.421), time (3.422) or cause (3.424). These modifiers are often called 'adverbials,' e Umstandsbestimmung or e Artangabe, or s Attribut.

Adverbs (3.411), certain noun phrases (3.412) and many prepositional phrases (3.413) function as modifiers in sentences and clauses.

3.411 Adverbs Modifying Verb Phrases

Adverbs (<Latin adverbium 'belonging to the verb') (s Adverb, s Umstandswort, Beiwort) are a class of lexical items which are never inflected and function as semantic modifiers.

True adverbs:

hier 'here'	jetzt 'now'	kaum 'barely'
dort 'there'	bald 'soon'	sehr 'very'

Derived Adverbs:

Some adverbs are formed from other parts of speech, such as adjectives, determiners, numbers, pronouns, or prepositions by adding certain morphemes:

-e	lang-e, gern-e[1]
-s	recht-s, link-s, morgen-s, ersten-s, sonntag-s
-lich	kürz-lich, neu-lich, frei-lich, reich-lich
-falls	besten-falls, jeden-falls, gegeben-en-falls
-erweise	glücklich-erweise, fälschlich-erweise[2]
-maßen	der-maßen, einiger-maßen
-wärts	heim-wärts, auf-wärts
-mal(s)	mehr-mal(s), viel-mal(s)

Compound Adverbs:

Some adverbs are formed by combinations of preposition, adjective, or adverb:

zuerst hierher überall

Adjectives as Adverbs:

All adjectives (4.14), past participles (3.152), and present participles (3.153) can function as adverbs to modify verbs.

In English, adjectives are often, but not always, distinguished from adverbs and predicate adjectives (3.315):

ADJECTIVE	PREDICATE ADJECTIVE	ADVERB
Her soft voice.	Her voice is soft.	She speaks softly.

An adjective specifies a noun (4.14), a predicate adjective complements linking verbs (to be, remain, seem, etc.) (3.315), and an adverb modifies other verbs.

In German there is no morphological distinction between predicate adjective and adverb, except for the obligatory complementary nature of the predicate adjective:

ADJECTIVE	PREDICATE ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB
Ihre laute Stimme.	Ihre Stimme ist laut. Sie spricht laut.

Adverbs generally do not form a comparative and superlative (4.144), with the exception of a few frequent adverbs which often have suppletive forms:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
bald 'soon'	früher	am frühesten (frühestens)
	eher	am ehesten

[1]The ending -e is a remnant of the OHG adverb ending -o (1.423) and is often deleted in modern German.

[2]-s and -er- are reflexes of an earlier genitive marker.

POSITIVE		COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
gern	'gladly'	lieber	am liebsten
viel	'much'	mehr	am meisten (meistens)
sehr	'very'		
wenig	'little'	weniger	am wenigsten (wenigstens)
	'few'	minder	am mindesten (mindestens)
wohl	'well'	besser	am besten (bestens)

The forms in parentheses have become lexicalized adverbs and are frequently no longer understood as superlatives of adverbs, just as English 'mostly' is not generally associated with 'much-more-most.'

Wohl, the adverb of gut 'good-well' is not often used adverbially, comparable to English. It occurs as a prefix of verbs, e.g. sich wohlfühlen 'to feel well' or as a modifier of mood (3.423) in the meaning of 'probably.'

Adjectives functioning as adverbs form their comparative with -er: klein-kleiner, and their superlative is preceded by am and ends with -sten after the stem (with or without umlaut, 4.144): am kleinsten. Predicate adjectives form their comparative and superlative (3.325) in a similar way:

> Peter läuft schnell, Hans läuft schneller, und Fritz läuft am schnellsten.
> 'Peter runs fast, Hans runs faster, and Fritz runs fastest.'

Most past and present participles do not form a comparative or superlative (4.144).

3.412 Noun Phrases Modifying Verb Phrases

Predicates can be modified by non-obligatory noun phrases (4.ff):

> Sie kommt jeden Morgen. 'She comes every morning.'

Such modifying noun phrases cannot be elicited by the questions wer/was, wen/was, wem or wessen (4.165), and they do not belong to the valence of predicates (3.33ff), but they are free modifiers of circumstances.

These modifying noun phrases can be in the accusative case indicating a measure of time, distance, or weight (3.422; 3.423):

> Er geht jeden Tag in die Schule.
> 'He goes to school every day.'
> Die Straße ist einen Kilometer lang.
> 'The street is one kilometer long.'

Genitive Case

Many noun phrases in the genitive case indicate a point-of-time with an ein-determiner (4.132; 3.214) and a repeated time with a der-determiner (4.131):

Eines Abends/eines Tages/eines Nachts[1] kam er.
'One evening/one day/one night he came.'
Des Abends/des Nachts schlafen wir immer.
('In the evening/at night we always sleep.')

3.413 Prepositional Phrases Modifying Verb Phrases

All prepositional phrases (4.165) which are not required by the valence of verbs (3.33) are modifiers and can be interchanged with semantically appropriate adverbs:

Er schreibt	hier.	'He writes here.'
	am Schreibtisch.	at the desk.'
	im Dunklen.	in the dark.'
	neben der Lampe.	next to the lamp.'
Er kommt	bald.	'He comes soon.'
	um fünf Uhr.	at five o'clock.'
	am Montag.	on Monday.'
	in 10 Minuten.	in 10 minutes.'

3.42 Use and Function of Modifiers

Modifiers indicate the circumstances under which the action or state of being denoted by the predicate takes place. Such circumstances can be of place (3.421), of time (3.422), or of mood (3.423).

The modifiers can be elicited by questions introduced by certain interrogative pronouns or prepositional phrases consisting of interrogative (4.165):

Wir gehen spazieren. 'We go for a walk.'

Modifier of Place:

Wir gehen im Wald spazieren. Wo gehen wir spazieren?

Modifier of Time:

Wir gehen jetzt spazieren. Wann gehen wir spazieren?

Modifier of Mood:

Wir gehen warm angezogen spaz. Wie gehen wir spazieren?

Modifier of Cause:

Wir gehen wegen des schönen Wetters spazieren. Warum gehen wir spazieren?

Modifier of Purpose:

Wir gehen zur Erholung spaz. Zu welchem Zweck gehen wir spaz?

Modifier of Contrast:

Wir gehen trotz des Regens spazieren. Trotz was gehen wir spazieren?

[1]Note that Nacht, although a die-noun, forms the genitive in analogy to der- and das-nouns.

Modifier of Condition:

Bei Regen gehen wir nicht spazieren. — Unter welcher Bedingung gehen wir nicht spazieren?

Modifier of Comparison:

Wir gehen lieber spazieren als arbeiten. — Was tun wir lieber als arbeiten?

Modifier of Emphasis:

Wir gehen doch spazieren. — (no question possible)

Because of their diverse meanings, modifiers are categorized semantically. Most modifiers have a structural and semantic transformational relationship to subordinate clauses (5.334 ff).

3.421 Modifiers of Place

Circumstances of locality distinguish three different situations:

There are modifiers which reflect an intralocal status, elicited by wo 'where;' the verb phrase denotes no motion and its perfect is formed with haben (3.171):

Er arbeitet hier/in seinem Büro. Wo arbeitet er?
'He works here/in his office. Where does he work?'

There are adverbs which indicate the modification of stationary locality, for example:

hier 'here'	oben 'above'	nirgends 'nowhere'
da 'there'	unten 'below'	überall 'everywhere'
dort 'there'	vorn 'in front'	rechts 'on the right'

Prepositional phrases can indicate stationary locality these are primarily the prepositions requiring accusative or dative (an, auf, hinter, in, neben, über, unter, vor, zwischen; 4.153), always using the dative case:

Er arbeitet am Schreibtisch/neben dem Fenster/unter mir.

Of the prepositions with dative, only bei is used frequently to denote stationary locality:

Er arbeitet bei Firma Meier/seiner Tante.

There are modifiers which reflect directional and intralocal motion toward something/somebody, which are elicited by wohin, the verb denotes motion and its perfect is formed with sein (3.171):

Er geht dorthin/in sein Büro. Wohin geht er?[1]
'He goes there/into his office. Where is he going?'

---

[1] Questions with wohin and woher are more frequently formed by dividing the interrogative: Wo geht er hin? Wo kommt er her?, similar to English 'Where does he come from?'

There are adverbs which indicate directional locality, for example:

hin 'to'	hinauf 'up(wards)'	hinein 'into'
hierhin 'hereto'	hinaus 'out'	aufwärts 'upwards'
dahin 'thereto'	heim 'home(wards)'	nach links 'to the left'

Prepositional phrases which are used to denote directional modification are primarily introduced by the prepositions which take accusative or dative, always using the accusative (4.153):

Er geht an den Tisch/auf das Dach/zwischen die Leute.

Of the prepositions with accusative, durch, gegen, um and the postposition entlang are used:

Er läuft durch den Wald/gegen das Auto/um das Haus/die Straße entlang.

Of the prepositions with dative, nach is used in the meaning of 'to' when the goal of the motion is a city, country, or continent without a determiner (4.231):

Er reist nach Kairo/nach Agypten/nach Afrika.

If the country has a determiner, the preposition in with accusative is used instead:

Er fährt in die Schweiz/in die Vereinigten Staaten.

The preposition is used as prefix in nachhaus(e)gehen:

Er geht nachhaus.

An additional preposition with dative which is used for directional modification is zu, when the motion goes to an institution:

Er eilt zur Schule, zur Polizei, zur Post and zum Bahnhof.

Modifiers which reflect direction and translocal motion away from something/somebody are elicited by woher, the verb indicating motion:

Er kommt dorther/aus Paris/von Osterreich. Woher kommt er? 'He comes from there/from Paris/from Austria. Where does he come from?'

The most frequent adverbs used to indicate this directional modification are:

her 'from'	von oben 'from above'
hierher 'from here'	von innen 'from inside'
daher 'from there'	heraus/auf/ein 'out, up, in'

The most frequent prepositions are aus and von with dative:

Sie kommt aus dem Haus/aus Paris/aus Frankreich.

Aus denotes the place of origin and nationality; the example implies that she is French.

Sie kommt von der Post/von Paris/von Frankreich.

Von denotes a place of previous stay; the example implies that she has visited the post office and Paris and France briefly.

Sometimes, two prepositions indicate the place from which the motion occurs; they always take dative:

Sie kommt von unter den Decken (hervor).

A distance from point of departure to point of arrival is denoted by von...bis:

Der Zug fährt von Hamburg bis München.

For further discussion of prepositions, see section 4.15ff; for positions of modifiers in clauses, see section 5.224; and for modifier clauses, see section 5.334ff.

3.422 Modifiers of Time

Modifiers of time are divided into three categories:

Point-of-time Modifiers (3.214) are elicited by the question wann? 'when' or, more precisely, um wieviel Uhr, zu welcher Zeit, an welchem Tag, in welchem Jahr? 'at what time, on what day, in what year?'

Many adverbs indicate temporal modification, for example:

heute 'today'	jetzt 'now'	bald 'soon'
morgen 'tomorrow'	nun 'now'	endlich 'finally'
gestern 'yesterday'	gerade 'now'	anfangs 'initially'

Some adjectives function as adverbs giving temporal modification:

früh 'early' spät 'late' plötzlich 'suddenly'

Wir treffen ihn jetzt/morgen/spät/bald. Wann treffen wir ihn?
'We meet him now/tomorrow/late/soon. When do we meet him?'

Noun phrases used as temporal modifiers are in the genitive and have the ein-determiner (4.232):

eines Tages, eines Abends, eines Nachts, eines Morgens, etc.

Eines Tages standen sie vor der Tür.
'One day they stood at the door.'

Some noun phrases in the accusative denote a point in time:

Sonntag, diese Woche, Ostern, Pfingsten, Weihnachten, 1982:

3.422

Wir erwarten ihn Sonntag/diese Woche/Ostern/1982.[1]
'We expect him Sunday/this week/Easter/in 1982.'

The most frequent prepositions introducing prepositional phrases as temporal modifiers are an, in, nach and vor with dative, and um and gegen with no visible case:

an is used for times of the day, days and dates:

Am Morgen, an diesem Donnerstag, am 1. Mai 1979.

in is used with night, week, month, year:

In der Nacht, in der nächsten Woche, im Monat Mai, im Jahre 1982.

nach is used with clock-times, activities, and events:

Es ist 10 Minuten nach 8 (Uhr).
Er kommt nach der Arbeit/nach dem Essen/nach dem Kino.
Im Jahre 1979 nach Christus (nach Christi Geburt) (n.C.).

vor as 'before' is used as the opposite of nach:

Es ist 10 Minuten vor 8 (Uhr).
Er kommt vor der Arbeit, vor dem Essen, vor dem Kino.
Im Jahre 100 vor Christus (vor Christi Geburt) (v.C.).

vor also means 'ago:'

Vor drei Tagen/vor vier Wochen/vor fünf Jahren.
'Three days ago/four weeks ago/five years ago.'

um means 'at' with clock-times (4.1473):

Um 9 Uhr/um 20 Uhr.

gegen 'around' indicates an approximate time:
Gegen 9 Uhr/gegen Morgen/gegen Abend.

Stretch-of-time Modifiers (3.214) are elicited by questions beginning with wie lange? 'for how long?,' seit wann? 'since when?' or bis wann 'until when?:'

Sie wurde stundenlang gesucht. Wie lange wurde sie gesucht?
Sie wurde seit Montag gesucht. Seit wann wurde sie gesucht?
Sie wurde bis gestern gesucht. Bis wann wurde sie gesucht?

Adverbs used to indicate this type of modification include:

immer 'always'	noch 'still'	seitdem 'ever since'
oft 'often'	lange 'for a long time'	seither 'since then'
schon 'already'	zeitlebens 'life-long'	bisher 'until now'

stunden-/tage-/wochen-/jahre-lang 'for hours/days/weeks/years'

[1] Note that years are used without 'in;' only when Jahr precedes the number, it is im Jahr(e) X.

Such adverbs are often combined with one another or with prepositions:

noch immer 'still' schon oft 'often'
seit langem 'for a long time' bis jetzt 'until now'

Adjectives which are used as adverbs are:

dauernd/immerwährend 'constantly'

Noun phrases used as stretch-of-time modifiers stand in the accusative:

drei Tage (lang) 'for three days'
zehn Jahre (lang) 'for ten years'

Prepositional phrases are introduced by:

über 'more' with accusative:

Er hat über zwei Stunden gewartet.
'He waited more than two hours.'

bis or bis zu 'until' with dative:

Er hat bis 6 Uhr/bis zum Morgen/bis gestern gewartet.
'He waited until 6 o'clock, until morning, until yesterday.'

seit 'since' with dative:

Er hat seit 6 Uhr, seit Morgen/seit gestern gewartet.
'He waited since 6 o'clock/since morning/since yesterday.'

Stretches of time are delimited by von-bis 'from-to:'

Wir arbeiten von Montag bis Freitag/von Januar bis Mai.
'We work from Monday to Friday/from January to May.'

Habitual time modifiers, elicited by wie oft? 'how often?:'

Ich treffe sie täglich/morgens/manchmal/alle Tage. Wie oft...?

Adverbs which indicate habitual time include:

morgens 'in the morning' sonntags 'on Sunday'
abends 'in the evening' mehrmals 'several times'
dann und wann 'now and then' zeitweise 'once in a while'

Adjectives used as adverbs are those which are formed with -lich from hours, days, weeks, months, years:

stündlich, täglich, wöchentlich, monatlich, jährlich.

Die Rechnungen werden täglich/wöchentlich verschickt.
'The bills are sent out daily/weekly.'

Noun phrases as modifiers are in the accusative, often introduced by the determiners jed- or all- (4.131)

jeden Tag 'every day' alle Tage 'every day'
jeden Morgen 'every morning' alle Jahre 'every year'

Die Rechnungen werden jede Woche/alle Monate verschickt.

Noun phrases in the genitive have the der-determiner:

des Morgens 'in the morning' des Nachts 'at night'

Des Morgens/des Abends verschließen wir unser Haus.
'In the morning/at night we lock our house.'

Prepositional phrases are those used with point-of-time modifiers ((1) above), determined by jed-:

An jedem zweiten Morgen geht die Mutter einkaufen.
'Every other morning mother goes shopping.'

For a discussion of prepositions, see section 4.15ff; for position of modifiers in clauses, see section 5.224; and for modifier clauses, see section 5.334ff.

3.423 Modifiers of Mood

There are modifiers of mood which indicate manner, kind, and quality of an action and are elicited by wie? 'how?' (3.222)

Wir gehen gern/schnell/mit Freude zur Schule. Wie gehen wir...?

Adverbs which indicate mood and manner are, for example:

gern 'gladly' glücklicherweise 'fortunately'
umsonst 'in vain' bestens 'in the best manner'

Here, especially, adjectives function to indicate mood:

schnell, großzügig, erstaunlich, gut, schlecht, etc.

Er handelt großzügig/verständig/besonnen/klug/unabhängig.
'He acts generously/sensibly/prudently/cleverly/independently.'

Prepositional phrases are primarily introduced by mit 'with' with dative, and ohne 'without' with accusative:

Sie sang mit Vergnügen/ohne Scheu.
'She sang with pleasure/without shyness.'

There are also modifiers of measure of quantity, elicited by 'wieviel(e)? 'how much/how many?'

Adverbs are:

kaum 'barely' genug 'enough'

Er spricht kaum Deutsch. Er spricht Deutsch gut genug.
'He hardly speaks German. He speaks German well enough.'

Noun phrases are in the accusative with lang, schwer, wert:

Der Weg ist einen Kilometer lang.
'The road is a kilometer long.'

Dieser Sack ist einen Zentner schwer.
('The sack weighs fifty kilos.')
Das ist keine hundert Mark wert.
'That is not worth a hundred marks.'

There are mood modifiers (3.222) which indicate a personal, subjective assumption with the following adverbs:

vielleicht, vermutlich, wahrscheinlich, möglicherweise, hoffentlich, sicherlich, wohl, etc.

Er hat hoffentlich/vermutlich/wahrscheinlich das Geld.

Modifiers of instrument or accompaniment are elicited by the questions womit? (wodurch/wovon?) 'with (by/through) what?' for things and mit wem (durch wen/von wem?), 'with (by/through) whom?'

Such modifiers of mood are primarily expressed by prepositional phrases introduced by mit (with dative) for the instrument or accompaniment:

Er schlug das Loch mit dem Hammer. Er spricht mit Freunden.
'He made the hole with the hammer. He talks with friends.'

3.424 Modifiers of Cause

Modifiers of cause are generally prepositional phrases and prepositional pronouns (4.162); few adverbs are used in this context.

Modifiers of Cause express:

Cause or reason of an action or circumstance, elicited by warum? (weshalb? weswegen?) 'why?'

Adverbs are folglich and deshalb 'therefore;' prepositional phrases are introduced by wegen with genitive:

Wir gehen wegen des schönen Wetters spazieren. Warum gehen wir? Wir gehen deshalb/folglich spazieren.
'We go for a walk because of the nice weather/therefore.'

Motive or effect, introduced by aus (with dative) for the motive, and by vor (with dative) for the effect or for an unwilling reaction:

Er tut das aus Liebe. Sie schrie vor Angst.
'He does that for love. She screamed with fright.'

In passive clauses (3.181), the actor is expressed by a prepositional phrase with von (with dative), an inanimate cause by durch (with accusative), and a means by mit with dative):

Das Haus wurde von Vandalen/durch Feuer/mit Dynamit zerstört.
'The house was destroyed by vandals/by fire/with dynamite.'

Material basis or origin of products are expressed by prepositional phrases introduced by aus with dative:

Die Vase ist aus reinem Gold/aus Ton.
'The vase is (made) of pure gold/of clay.'

There is some semantic overlap between modifiers of cause and modifiers of mood (3.423), and precise delineation is sometimes difficult.

For further discussion of modifier clauses of cause, see section 5.3343.

3.425 Modifiers of Purpose

Purpose is primarily expressed by prepositional phrases introduced by zu with dative and elicited by zu welchem Zweck? 'to what purpose?' or mit welcher Absicht? 'with what intention?'

Er kommt zum Studium/zum Vergnügen/zu ihrer Hilfe.
'He comes to study/for fun/to her aid.'

These modifiers can be transformed into subordinate clauses (5.3345) or infinitive constructions (5.3321).

3.426 Modifiers of Contrast

Modifiers of contrast indicate the opposite of modifiers of cause (3.424) as restrictions in spite of which an action occurred. They are elicited by trotz was? 'in spite of what?' Prepositional phrases are introduced by trotz with genitive:

Trotz des Regens gehen wir spazieren.
'In spite of the rain we go for a walk.'

Adverbs used in this context are:

nichtsdestoweniger/nichtsdestotrotz 'nonetheless'
dennoch/doch 'in spite of it'

The prepositional pronoun (4.162) trotzdem 'in spite of it' is also used:

Wir gehen dennoch/trotzdem/nichtsdestotrotz spazieren.

For further discussion of clauses of contrast, see section 5.3345.

3.427 Modifiers of Condition

Conditions are expressed most frequently by subordinate clauses (5.3347). When functioning as modifiers, such conditions are expressed by prepositional phrases introduced by either bei (with dative) or ohne (with accusative). They are elicited by unter welcher Bedingung? 'under which condition?'

Bei Regen gehen wir nicht spazieren.
('If it rains we don't go for a walk.')
Ohne Geld kann man nichts kaufen.
'Without money one cannot buy anything.'

For further discussion of clauses of condition, see section 5.3346; for unreal conditions, see section 3.2251.

3.428 Modifiers of Comparison

Adverbs as modifiers of verb phrases (and adjectives as verb complements, 3.325) can be further modified by comparisons.

Comparison on equal levels:

The particles so...wie (ebenso/genauso...wie) are used with the positive of the adverb:

Er arbeitet genauso schwer wie ich.
'He works as hard as I.'

Comparison on two different levels:

When comparing two unequal entities, the comparative of the adverb (3.411) is used with als:

Er arbeitet schwerer als ich.
'He works harder than I.'

When the lower entity is compared with the higher, weniger + positive+als are used:

Ich arbeite weniger schwer als er.
'I work less hard than he.'

Sometimes, when comparing two adverbs (or adjective complements of verbs) with one another, mehr+positive+als combines the two adverbs, while eher+positive+als excludes the second adverb:

Er ist mehr traurig als ärgerlich.
'He is more sad than angry.'
Er ist eher traurig als ärgerlich.
'He is sad rather than angry.'

The relationship between two adverbs (or adjective complements) is expressed by je+comparative+desto+comparative:

Je schwerer er arbeitet, desto müder wird er.
'The harder he works, the more tired he gets.'

A further comparison can occur when noch einmal (doppelt)/ zweimal/dreimal so...wie modify the positive:

Er arbeitet doppelt (zehnmal) so schwer wie ich.
'He works twice (ten times) as hard as I.'

Sometimes, the second part of the comparison can be deleted by adding immer to the adverb or doubling the same adverb:

Die Tage wurden immer länger. Die Tage wurden länger und länger.

The superlative (3.411) of adverbs (and adjective complements of verbs, 3.325) can be made absolute by adding aller- to the superlative form:

Er arbeitet am schwersten. Er arbeitet am allerschwersten.
'He works hardest. He works hardest of all.'

For further discussion of clauses of comparison, see section 5.3348.

3.429 Modifiers of Emphasis

Degree, intensity and emphasis are expressed by adverbs which modify other adverbs or adjective complements of verbs, and elicited by wie? 'how?'

Adverbs which modify a positive adverb are:

so 'so'	überaus 'very'	besonders 'especially'
sehr 'very'	höchst 'highly'	fast 'nearly'
zu 'too'	ganz 'quite'	recht 'rather'

Das Essen schmeckt besonders/ganz/sehr/recht gut.
'The food tastes especially/quite/very/rather good.'

Adverbs which emphasize a negative adverb are:

überhaupt nicht/ganz und gar nicht 'not at all'
Das Essen schmeckt überhaupt nicht/ganz und gar nicht gut.

Adverbs which emphasize questions which usually cannot be translated into English are:

denn, nur, bloß (often denn nur/denn bloß)
überhaupt, eigentlich 'actually, incidentally'

Was machst du denn? Was machst du nur? Was machst du denn bloß? Was machst du eigentlich?

Adverbs which emphasize imperatives (3.226) and unreal wishes (3.2252) are:

doch, bloß, nur, ja 'only'
Komm doch! Komm ja pünktlich! Wenn er bloß käme!

3.43 Negation of the Predicate

Verb phrases are negated by the following adverbs:

nicht 'not'
nie, niemals 'never'
nicht mehr 'no longer, no more'
nie mehr 'never again'
nie und nimmer 'never at any time.'
keineswegs 'in no way'
keinesfalls 'under no circumstances'

nicht is often stressed by überhaupt, absolut, (ganz und) gar nicht 'not at all, absolutely not'

Ich habe ihn nicht/nie/niemals/gar nicht gesehen.
'I have not/never/not at all seen him.'
Er soll das nie mehr/keineswegs/keinesfalls tun.
'He should not do that ever again/in any way/under any circumstances.'

Since adverbs of negation make the verb phrase negative, the adverb stands closely to the finite verb in the simple tenses and moods (3.16ff) and to the past participle in the compound tenses and moods (3.17ff). Since the predicate is the most important constituent of sentences, a negated predicate usually negates a whole sentence:

Er kommt nicht.
Er ist gestern um 6 Uhr nicht gekommen.

However, modifiers can be individually negated:

Er ist nicht gestern sondern heute um 6 Uhr gekommen.
Er ist gestern nicht um 6 Uhr sondern um 7 gekommen.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. NOUN PHRASE

4.1 Forms in the Noun Phrase

4.11 Constituents of the Noun Phrase

The core of a noun phrase is a noun (4.12ff):

> Arbeit schafft Befriedigung.
> 'Work gives satisfaction.'

Most nouns are preceded by a determiner, indicating gender, number, and case of the noun it determines. There are two type of determiners:

> der-determiners (4.131):
>
> Diese Arbeit schafft Befriedigung.
> 'This work gives satisfaction.'

and ein-determiners (4.132):

> Meine Arbeit schafft Befriedigung.
> 'My work gives satisfaction.'

Between determiner and noun or preceding a noun without a determiner, one or more adjectives can specify a noun (4.14ff):

> Diese harte Arbeit schafft Befriedigung.
> 'This hard work gives satisfaction.'
>
> Harte, stetige Arbeit schafft Befriedigung.
> 'Hard, constant work gives satisfaction.'

A whole noun phrase or individual constituents can be modified by adverbs (3.411) or other noun phrases (4.4ff):

> Gerade diese sehr harte Arbeit des Schreibens schafft Befriedigung.
> 'Just this very hard work of writing gives satisfaction.'

Prepositions (4.15ff) are indicators of relationship, and they assign cases to noun phrases:

> Durch diese harte Arbeit findet er Befriedigung.
> 'Through this hard work he finds satisfaction.'

A whole noun phrase can be replaced by a pronoun (4.16ff):

> Diese sehr harte Arbeit schafft Befriedigung.
> Sie schafft Befriedigung.
> 'It gives satisfaction.'

4.12 Nouns

Nouns (<Latin nomen 'name') (s Nomen, Substantiv, Nennwort, Dingwort, Hauptwort) are morphological entities which can have the determiner der, das, or die preceding them. Nearly all parts of speech can function as nouns:

true nouns: der Mensch, das Brot, die Liebe
names: der Hans, das (schöne) Köln, die Müller
adjectives: der Alte, das Gute, die Fremde
past participles: der Bekannte, das Vergangene, die Verwandte
present participles: der Reisende, das Lebende, die Sehende
infinitives: das Denken
pronouns: das Ich, das Seine, das Warum
adverbs: das Heute, das Hier
prepositions: das Für und Wider
conjunctions: das Wenn und Aber
particles: das Ja und Nein
letters: das A und O
numbers: die Zehn

True nouns, adjectives and participles must have one of the three genders. Infinitives and all other parts of speech are always das-nouns; numbers are die-nouns. Infinitives rarely have plural forms.

Adjectives and participles are inflected according to their position either with the determining inflection (4.141) or the reduced inflection (4.142); all others follow the noun inflection (4.121).

4.121 Nominal Inflection

The forms within the noun phrase are inflected for gender, number, and case (gender<Latin genus 'gender, sex;' s Genus, Geschlecht; number<numerus; r Numerus, e Zahl; case<casus 'fall;' r Kasus, Fall).

In Latin, for example, the inflection of nouns distinguishes:

Gender (4.122) and	Case (4.124)
Number (4.123)	nominative
masculine	accusative
neuter	dative
feminine	genitive[1]
singular	
plural	

Such inflection, inherent in Latin nouns, can be seen in the paradigm of servus 'servant,' donum 'gift' and puella 'girl:'

		MASCULINE	NEUTER	FEMININE
Sg	N	serv-us	don-um	puell-a
	A	serv-um	don-um	puell-am
	D	serv-o	don-o	puell-ae
	G	serv-i	don-i	puell-ae
Pl	N	serv-i	don-a	puell-ae
	A	serv-os	don-a	puell-as

[1]Latin has more cases, usually arranged in a different sequence. Here, only those cases which are relevant and in a sequence appropriate for German are given.

D	serv-is	don-is	puell-is
G	serv-orum	don-orum	puell-arum

As shown in the Latin examples, gender (masc. -us, neut. -um, fem. -a) is clearly indicated in the form of the nouns by formal markers. Similarly, singular and plural are clearly visible, as are most cases. In English, gender and case markers are completely lost, and the plural is formed by allomorphs of /s/ (4.123).

In modern German, relatively few nouns are overtly marked for gender. German gender should not be called 'masculine, neuter, feminine,' since these terms are often associated with natural gender or sex. Instead, the grammatical classes of German nouns should be distinguished by their determiners der, das, and die, calling a traditional masculine noun' simply a 'der-noun' instead. It is practical to abbreviate the determiners der as r, das as s, and die as e, since the rest of the determiner is irrelevant for grammatical information and may even be distracting and, especially, since these endings reoccur in the whole inflectional system of determiners (4.13ff), adjectives (4.14ff), and pronouns (4.16ff).

Morphological markers for gender of nouns are, for instance, the ending -er signaling a der-noun (r Lehrer), or -chen and -lein indicating a das-noun (s Häuschen, s Kindlein); die-nouns can be recognized by -in, -heit, -keit, or -ung (e Freundin, e Krankheit, e Einigkeit, e Wohnung). However, most German nouns are not marked for gender and must therefore be learned with the determiner (4.122).

Number is indicated in German by plural morphemes in the majority of cases, such as /-¨-ər/: Buch-Bücher. Yet the distribution of the plural morphemes is not always predictable (4.123).

The functional classes of cases are also not marked on nouns. Only the genitive of all das- and most der-nouns is visible by /-s/: des Kindes, Lehrers. On most nouns, the dative plural is marked by /-n/: den Leuten (4.124).

Because of the lack of morphological markers on German nouns which indicate the obligatory grammatical categories of gender, number, and case, analytic devices are used to denote these categories. Determiners (4.13ff) which accompany nouns incorporate this information in their inflectional forms. Similarly, when a noun and its determiners and specifiers are replaced by a pronoun (4.16), the pronoun in most cases carries in its form the grammatical information.

The inflection of the noun phrase and its constituents is often called declension (<Latin declinare 'to bend') (e Deklination, Beugung, Biegung).

4.122 Gender

Although grammatical gender is a characteristic of all Indo-European languages (1.2), its origin is unknown. It is assumed that the Indo-Europeans considered the world

inhabited by various spirits of different sexes; those items which were uninhabited were neutral. The association with natural gender or sex is no longer valid; gender in modern German is little more than a grammatical accident, indicating grammatical classes of nouns.

In English, gender is no longer a grammatical category, although it was in Old English. Only when replacing some nouns by pronouns is gender visible, in a few instances: 'the ship, country, car - she.'

For the student of German, grammatical gender is difficult. Each noun should be taught and learned with its der-determiner. Recognition of noun gender by formal or semantic clues is possible only in relatively few cases.

Of the whole inventory of nouns in the German language, about 40% are der-nouns, 20% das-nouns, and 40% die-nouns.

The following table summarizes those nouns which can be recognized as belonging to a certain gender by formal, overt, and morphological markers, which are primarily suffixes. Frequently, there are exceptions, and the rules are only general guidelines. Since most nominal suffixes not only determine gender, but also plural morphemes (4.123), the list includes the plural in graphemic representation (2.6):

4.122

Gender of German nouns by formal, overt marker:

GENDER	MARKER	EXAMPLES	EXCEPTIONS	PLURAL
der	-er	r Lehrer, Vater, Sender	e Mutter, Tochter, Schwester, Butter s Fenster, Messer, Nummer, Oper, etc. Wasser, Kloster	(¨)---
	-el	r Hügel, Handel,	s Mittel, Viertel	
	-en	r Wagen, Garten	s Kissen, Essen (infinitives)	
	-ich	r Teppich, Fittich		-e
	-ig	r König, Käfig, Pfennig	s Reisig	
	-ling	r Zwilling, Prüfling	e Reling	
	-s	r Schnaps, Schlips Knicks		(¨)--- e
das	-chen	s Mädchen, Kindchen		---
	-lein	s Fräulein, Blümlein		
	-tel	s Mittel, Drittel, Zehntel		
	-icht	s Dickicht, Röhricht		
	-en	s Trinken, Leben (inf)		
	-tum	s Eigentum, Königtum	r Reichtum, Irrtum	-¨-er
die	-in	e Freundin, Kundin		-nen
	-ei	e Bäckerei, Fragerei		-en
	-heit	e Krankheit, Schönheit		
	-keit	e Seligkeit, Wendigkeit		
	-schaft	e Erbschaft, Botschaft		
	-ung	e Zeitung, Wohnung		

Most foreign words (recognizable by the absence of the primary stress on the first syllable) are marked for gender by their suffixes:

Gender of foreign nouns by formal, overt marker:

GENDER	MARKER	EXAMPLES	EXCEPTIONS		PLURAL
der	-and	r Konfirmand, Doktorand			-en
	-ant	r Fabrikant, Musikant			-en
	-ast	r Fantast, Gymnasiast			-en
	-ent	r Student, Interessent			-en
	-ismus	r Optimismus, Organismus			-en
	-ist	r Anarchist, Jurist			-en
	-or	r Doktor, Motor			-en
	-eur(ör)	r Friseur, Likör			-e
	-ier[īr]	r Kavalier, Offizier	e Manier e Spalier		-e
	-ier[je]	r Bankier, Routinier	s Dossier s Kollier		-s
das	-(i)um	s Album, Stadium			-en
	-ma	s Thema, Dogma, Komma			-en/-ata
	-ment	s Pergament, Segment	r Zement		-e
	-ment[mã]	s Appartement, Engagement			-s
	-ett	s Amulett, Parkett	r Kadett		---
	-in	s Benzin, Chinin, Nikotin			---
die	-ade	e Ballade, Fassade			-(e)n
	-age	e Garage, Menage			-(e)n
	-aise(äse)	e Marsaillaise, Majonnäse			-(e)n
	-ance	e Renaissance, Usance			-(e)n
	-anz	e Bilanz, Eleganz			-(e)n
	-elle	e Bagatelle, Forelle			-(e)n
	-ette	e Pinzette, Rosette			-(e)n
	-euse	e Balletteuse, Friseuse			-(e)n
	-ie[iə]	e Materie, Kastanie			-(e)n

4.122

GEN-DER	MARKER	EXAMPLES	EXCEPTIONS	PLURAL
	-ie[ī]	e Kolonie, Geographie	s Genie	
	-enz	e Existenz, Frequenz		
	-(i)ere	e Misere, Portiere	r Gondoliere	
	-ik	e Musik, Physik		
	-ine	e Margarine, Maschine		
	-(t)ion	e Nation, Reformation	r Spion	-(e)n
	-isse	e Kulisse, Narzisse		
die	-tät	e Fakultät, Rarität		
	-ive	e Offensive, Alternative		
	-ose	e Osmose, Tuberkulose		
	-sis	e Basis, Genesis		
	-ur	e Natur, Mixtur, Kultur		
	-üre	e Broschure, Maniküre		
	-a	e Kamera, Aula		-s
	-itis	e Bronchitis, Arthritis		---

Not only are formal, overt markers helpful in recognizing gender, but also groups by meaning:

GEN-DER	MARKER	EXAMPLES	EXCEPTIONS
	male beings	r Mann, Hahn, Löwe	e Drohne
	days	r Sonntag, Montag	(e Woche)
	months	r Januar, Februar	(s Jahr)
	seasons	r Frühling, Herbst	
der	directions	r Norden, Osten	
	stones	r Diamant, Granit	
	rains, winds	r Regen, Hagel, Taifun	
	mountains	r Brocken, Vesuv	e Zugspitze s Matterhorn
	foreign rivers	r Amazonas, Nil	e Wolga, Seine, Themse
	planets	r Mars, Jupiter	e Venus
	cars	r Mercedes, VW	e Isabella

GENDER	MARKER	EXAMPLES	EXCEPTIONS
das	young beings	s Kind, Küken, Lamm	r Säugling
	collective animal	s Pferd, Rind, Schaf	
	letters	s A, Z, O	
	towns	s schöne Berlin	Den Haag
	countries	s sonnige Italien	e Schweiz, Türkei e Vereinigten Staaten
	metals	s Gold, Silber, Kupfer	r Stahl
	chem. elements	s Brohm, Beryllium	r Schwefel
	collectives	s Volk, Besteck	
	parts of speech	s Verb, Adjektive, Nomen	
die	female beings	s Frau, Kuh, Katze, Hündin	s Mädchen, Fräulein s Weib, Mannequin r Teenager
	flowers	e Rose, Nelke, Tulpe	r Krokus, Flieder
	trees	e Eiche, Ulme, Linde	r Ahorn, Holunder
	German rivers	e Nahe, Isar, Mosel	r Rhein
	numbers	e Eins, Zehn, Hundert	(s Dutzend)
	planes	e Boeing, Messerschmitt	
	ships	e Titanik, e Andrea Doria	

Compound nouns, which are made up of two or more nouns, take the gender of the last noun:

r Motor, s Boot = das Motorboot

Some meanings of phonetically identical nouns are distinguished by gender (1.52):

r See 'lake' - e See 'ocean'

Since these overt and semantic markers have numerous exceptions and do not comprise all nouns, they should not be given in the first year of German. Rather, each noun should be taught with its determiner in groups of similar nouns. Only later can such lists serve as references.

4.123 Number

The grammatical and functional category of number indicates the difference between singular (<Latin singularis (numerus) 'single (number);' r Singular, e Einzahl) and plural (<Latin pluralis (numerus) 'several (numbers);' r Plural, e Mehrzahl).

4.123

In most Indo-European languages, the plural is indicated by plural morphemes. English has /-s/ and its phonologically conditioned allomorphs as active plural morphemes. Some remnants of Germanic plural morphemes exist as inactive allomorphs on some words:

/-s/	after voiceless consonants: 'lips, hats, books'
/-z/	after voice consonants and vowels: 'ribs, lads, bogs; boys'
/-əz/	after sibilants: 'lashes, houses, churches'
/-ən/	in few words: 'oxen, children'
/-¨-/	in few words: 'mice, geese, feet'
/---/	few words: 'fish, deer'

German has five plural morphemes, which are assigned to most nouns by overt, formal markers. However, the distribution of the plural morphemes is not always predictable. In order of descending frequency, the German plural morphemes are:

/-n/	:Frau-Frauen, Muskel-Muskeln
/-(¨)-ə/	:Stuhl-Stühle, Arm-Arme
/-¨-ər/	:Buch-Bücher
/-(¨)-/	:Lehrer-Lehrer, Garten-Gärten
/-s/	:Büro-Büros

The following list correlates the plural morphemes with the gender of the nouns, indicating the approximate number in each class, where possible:

MORPHEME	GENDER	NUMBER	MARKER	EXAMPLES
/-(ə)n/	die	most	die-gender; -ung, -heit, -keit, etc	Frau-en, Lampe-n, Wohnung-en, Krankheit-en
	der	many some c 30 c 10	foreign Gmc. -e monosyllabic -el, -er	Kandidat-en, Demagog-en Knabe-n, Löwe-n, Funke-n Ahn-en, Hirt-en Bauer-n, Muskel-n
	das	c 10		Auge-n, Bett-en, Herz-en
/(¨)ə/	der	many some	monosyllabic -ling, -ig	Tisch-e, Stühl-e, Höf-e Jüngling-e, König-e
	das	c 40 c 20	monosyllabic -nis	Beil-e, Blech-e, Boot-e Ereignis-s-e
	die	c 30	monosyllabic	Bräut-e, Ängst-e, Wänd-e
/-¨-ər/	das	most		Büch-er, Gespenst-er
	der	c10	monosyllabic	Geist-er, Gött-er
/(¨)/	der	many	el, -er, -en	Nägel, Gärten, Väter
	das	many	-chen, -lein; -el, -er, -en	Mädchen, Fräulein Gitter, Mittel, Rennen
	die	2	-er	Mütter, Töchter
/-s/	das	many	foreign; ending with vowel; abbreviations; acronyms	Büro-s, Auto-s, Hotel-s
	der	few		Chef-s, Park-s, VW-s
	die	few		Sauna-s, Kamera-s

The plural morpheme /-s/ also occurs in some German words:

after vowels: Uhu-s, Mutti-s, Schupo-s
family names: Meier-s, Schmidt-s (when the whole family is included: Wir essen bei Müllers)
compound nouns: Stelldichein-s, Dreikäsehoch-s
colloquial: Jung-s, Junge-ns (instead of Jungen) Bengel-s (instead of Bengel)

On some recent loan words from English and French the plural morphemes have not been fully established in German. One may hear Streik-s or Streik-e, Balkon-s or Balkon-e.

Foreign Nouns:

MORPHEME	CLUES	EXAMPLES
/-s/ or/-ə/		Trend-s, Hotel-s, Büro-s
	-on	Balkon-e/Balkon-s
	-ment	Temperament-e, Abonnement-s
/-n/	-age	Etage-n, Garage-n
	-ant	Lieferant-en, Musikant-en
	-enz	Essenz-en, Emiz-en
	-ion	Nation-en, Regligion-en
	-ist	Kommunist-en, Fatalist-en
	-or	Doktor-en, Motor-en
	-ur	Partitur-en, Natur-en
	-il	Fossil-ien (/-iən/)
	-al	Material-ien (/-iən/)
		The plural morphemes replace the singular ending:
	-um	Datum-Dat-en, Museum-Muse-en, Stadium-Stadi-en
	-us	Globus-Glob-en, Genius-Geni-en
	-a	Firma-Firm-en, Thema-Them-en, Dogma-Dogm-en
	-as	Atlas-Atla-nten
/-ta/	-a	Schema-Schema-ta, Komma-Komma-ta (few)

Just as gender of nouns (4.122) is largely unpredictable, so is the distribution of plural morphemes. When introducing the plural, nouns should be grouped according to their plural morphemes and practiced extensively.

For discussion of the use of the plural, see section 4.241.

4.1231 Phonological Conditioning of Plural Morphemes

The graphemic variations of nouns in the singular and plural reflect either an inclusion of /-ə-/ for ease of speaking or a graphemic device to indicate vowel quality.

The plural morpheme /-n/ is /-ən/ when a noun ends with any vowel or consonant other than -e, -r or -l:

Mensch-en, Frau-en, Bett-en

The morpheme is preceded by an -n- after the die-noun suffix -in to maintain its short quality: Freundin-nen.

After -nis the -s is doubled preceding the morpheme /-(¨)ə /: Ereignis-se. Nouns ending in <ß> form the plural with <ss> when the stem vowel is short: Roß-Ros-se, but maintain the <ß> when the vowel is long: Schoß-Schöße (2.61).

The distribution of umlaut in the morphemes / (¨)ə / and / (¨) / is more complex. Umlaut was defined in verbs (3.11) as not only a-ä, u-ü, o-ö and au-äu, but also as a-e, e-i and au-eu due to historical developments (1.422). Within the noun plural, however, only the back vowels u, o, au are subject to umlaut, and umlaut therefore can only occur when these back vowels are in the stem syllable of the nouns.

An umlaut never occurs with the plural morphemes /-n/ and /-s/. Umlaut always occurs with the morpheme /-¨-ər/ when the stem vowel has u, o, a, or ou.

The distribution of umlaut is unpredictable with the morphemes / -(¨) ə/ and / (¨) /:

MOR-PHEME	GEN-DER	UMLAUT			NO UMLAUT		
		NUMBER	MARKER	EXAMPLE	NUMBER	MARKER	EXAMPLE
-(¨)ə	der	most	monos.	Stühle	c. 25	monos.	Arm-e
	das	few	monos.	Flöß-e	c. 40	monos.	Brot-e
	die	c. 30	monos.	Händ-e			
(¨)	der	c. 25	-er, -el, -en	Mäntel	most	-er, -el -en	Hocker
	das	1	-er	Klöster			
	die	2	-er	Mütter			

4.124 Case

The inflection of nouns distinguishes four cases, which are functional categories required by the valence of the predicate (3.33ff) or by prepositions (4.15ff).

Nominative <Latin casus nominativus 'naming case;' r Nominativ, Wer-Fall, erste Fall 'subject case'

Accusative <Latin casus accusativus 'accusing case,' mistranslation of Greek ptósis aitiatiké 'case which indicates effect;' r Akkusativ, Wen-Fall, vierte Fall 'direct object case'

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Dative	<Latin *casus dativus* 'giving case;' *r Dativ*, *Wem-Fall*, *dritte Fall* 'indirect object case'
Genitive	<Latin, *casus genitivus* 'creating case;' *r Genitiv*, *Wes-Fall*, *zweite Fall* 'possessive case'

Because of frequency and formal identity of nominative and accusative, these two cases should be grouped together, instead of using the traditional arrangement of Latin grammar which had the sequence nominative-genitive-dative-accusative.

Frequently, accusative, dative, and genitive are summarized as oblique cases (<Latin *casus obliqui* 'crooked cases') in opposition to the nominative (<Latin *casus rectus* 'straight case').

English nouns are marked for case only in the genitive: 'his master'*s* voice, Peter'*s* car.'

German nouns are marked for case only in a few instances: No case marker occurs in the singular of *die*-nouns. All *das*-nouns and the majority of *der*-nouns have as their only case marker an /-s/ in the genitive singular: *des Auge-s*, *Lehrer-s*. The inflection of *der*-nouns marked by the genitive /-s/ is traditionally called 'strong,' and the class contains all *der*-nouns which have a plural morpheme other than /-n/ (1.423; 4.123).

Many *der*-nouns have the plural marker /-n/, and all oblique singular cases are also marked by /-n/, such as *der Junge*, *den*, *dem*, *des Jungen*. This inflection is traditionally called 'weak.' One noun in this group, *der Herr*, adds only an /-n/ in the singular (*den*, *dem*, *des Herrn*), although its plural morpheme is /-ən/: *die Herren*.

A few *der*-nouns of this group add an additional /-s/ to the /-n/-morpheme of the oblique cases in the genitive sg: *des Gedankens*. The most frequent eight nouns in this group should be memorized and they are: *Buchstabe*, *Friede*, *Funke*, *Gedanke*, *Glaube*, *Name*, *Wille*. One *das*-noun belongs to this group: *das Herz*, *dem Herzen*, *des Herzens*.

Another small group of *der*-nouns with the /-n/ plural morpheme follow the 'strong' inflection in the singular by adding /-s/ in the genitive. This inflection is sometimes called 'mixed.' The nouns in this group are: *r Dorn*, *Mast*, *Muskel*, *Pantoffel*, *Schmerz*, *See*, *Staat*, *Strahl*, *Vetter*, and all nouns ending with *-or*, e.g., *Doktor*.

Monosyllabic *der-* and *das*-nouns occasionally have a /-ə/ in the dative singular: *dem Freunde* and *zu Hause*. However, this remnant of an inflectional ending is used with decreasing frequency.

The plural is marked for case by a dative plural morpheme /-n/ only in the dative of nouns which have a plural morpheme other than /-n/ and /-s/: *den Leuten*, *Kindern*.

The following chart summarizes the case morphemes:

CASE	CASE MORPHEME	GEN-DER	PLURAL MORPHEME	EXAMPLE	EXCEPTIONS NUM.	EXCEPTIONS EXAMPLE
G. Sg.	/-s/	der	all but /-n/	Vaters	9 many	Dornen-Dorns -or Motoren-Motors
		das	all	Kindes	1	Herzen-Herzens
O. Sg.	/-n/	der	/-n/	Menschen	7	Gedankens
D. Pl.	/-n/	all	all but /-s/ and /-n/	Kindern		

To teach case markers of nouns, it is best to proceed from die-nouns which are always unmarked in the singular. Das-nouns (except das Herz) and der-nouns with genitive singular /-s/ can be taught together. Those der-nouns which have the plural morpheme /-n/, and therefore the same morpheme in all oblique cases, can be introduced later. The few exceptions may be listed and practiced after both inflections of der-nouns have been mastered.

Dictionaries usually list the genitive singular of all nouns. Such listing is redundant in die-nouns and das-nouns (except s Herz), since the genitive morpheme is predictable (die: Ø, das: /-s/). The listing is only helpful to an extent in der-nouns, since the genitive morpheme /-s/ is predictable when the noun has a plural other than /-n/, with the exception of a small group of irregular cases.

Phonological conditioning of case morphemes concerns only the genitive singular marker /-s/; Monosyllabic der- and das-nouns often include /-ə-/, although forms without that inclusion are not infrequent: des Freundes, des Freunds. For the genitive of nouns ending with -nis or <ß>, the same rules apply as with the plural morpheme: des Ereignisses, des Rosses, des Schoßes. Nouns ending in sibilants add /-əs/ in the genitive: Los-e-s.

The following chart summarizes the nominal declension:

	SINGULAR				PLURAL
	der-NOUNS		das-NOUNS	die-NOUNS	
	without pl /-n/	with pl /-n/			
N	Freund	Junge	Kind	Frau	Freunde
A	Freund	Jungen	Kind	Frau	Freunde
D	Freund	Jungen	Kind	Frau	Freunden
G	Freundes	Jungen	Kindes	Frau	Freunde
Exceptions:		Name+6 Dorn+8 -or	Herz		

For further discussion on the use of cases, see section 4.242ff.

4.13 Determiners

Determiners are those morphological entities which mark nouns; they are therefore often called 'noun-markers,' 'limiting words' or, traditionally, 'articles' (<Latin articulum 'small joint;' r Artikel, s Geschlechtswort). Determiners are functional markers denoting gender, number, and case of nouns since in most cases nouns themselves have lost such morphological markings (4.12ff).

Based on slight differences in inflection and use, determiners are divided into two classes. Der-determiners are inflected for gender in the nominative singular (4.131). Ein-determiners are not inflected for gender in the nominative singular of der- and nominative and accusative of das-nouns. They are, however, inflected like the der-determiners in all other cases (4.132).

For a discussion of determiners as pronouns see section 4.163; for use of determiners, see section 4.231.

4.131 der-Determiners

The prototype of determiners is the class of der-words, the definite article (r bestimte Artikel, s bestimmte Geschlechtswort): der, das, die which marks nouns for gender, number, and case. For this reason, each noun must be learned together with its der- determiner.

Since English has lost the morphological categories of gender and case, its determiner 'the' is uninflected, as opposed to German, in which the inflection results in a variety of forms.

The der-determiner is inflected as follows:

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	der	das	die	
N	der	das	die	
A	den			
D	dem			den
G	des		der	

It is pedagogically efficient to show the endings of der-determiners in an abbreviated manner, since they are inflectional morphemes which re-occur in the inflectional system of determiners, adjectives, and pronouns (4.14; 4.16ff). As inflectional morphemes, the ending of das is /-(ə)s/ and of die is /-ə/ and, when added to the stem of another determiner, all consonantal endings are preceded by /ə/: dieser, meinem.

Given in an abbreviated, mnemonic chart, the inflectional endings of the der-determiners provide the basis of further inflections (4.132; 4.144ff; 4.16ff). However, charts such as these should only be given when the syntactic context is understood.

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	der	das	die	
N	r	s	e	
A	n			
D	m			n
G	s		r	

In such syntactic frames the endings can generate the following examples which serve as a basis of exercises:

Der Wagen, das Auto, die Karre, die Räder sind hier.
Er geht durch den Wald, das Feld, die Wiese, die Berge.
Er kommt mit dem Bus, dem Rad, der Bahn, den Zügen.
Das Auto des Vaters, des Geschäfts, der Mutter, der Freunde ist hier.

Inflected in the same way as the der-determiners are a few additional determiners which are often called 'der-words.' They add the endings above to their stem after the inclusion of /-ə-/ before consonantal endings. They are morphologically--but not semantically--interchangeable with der-determiners:

dies-er	'this'	manch-er	'many a'
jen-er	'that'	solch-er	'such (a)'
jed-er	'each, every'	welch-er	'which?'

4.131

Dieser Hut, dieses Kleid, jene Mütze, solche Handschuhe gefallen mir.
Sie kauft manchen Koffer, jedes Buch, solche Lampe, jene Schuhe.
Mit diesem Zug, jenem Verkehrsmittel, jeder Bahn, solchen Zügen kann man bequem reisen.
Die Bücher welches Schülers, welches Mädchens, welcher Studentin, welcher Studentinnen sind nicht hier?

4.132 ein-Determiners

The ein-determiner, ein, ein, eine, was originally a number, as English 'one' or 'a,' known as the 'indefinite article' (r unbestimmte Artikel, s unbestimmte Geschlechtswort). In both languages, ein 'one' has no morphological plural: 'one car/a car - cars, ein Auto- Autos.
The negation of ein is kein, inflected in the same way but it has a plural: keine Autos 'no cars.'
The inflection of ein-determiners differs from that of the der-determiners in only three cases: (k)ein has no inflectional ending in the nominative singular of der-nouns and in the nominative and accusative of das-nouns. In the strict sense of the word, ein is not a determiner in these cases, since it does not indicate gender and case of nouns.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="3">der</th><th colspan="2">das</th></tr>
<tr><td>N</td><td>der-Det
ein-Det</td><td>der Mann
ein- Mann</td><td>N,A</td><td>das Kind
ein- Kind</td></tr>
</table>

Since the ein-determiners add the same inflectional morphemes as the der-determiners in all other cases, the lack of an ending in the nominative singular of der-nouns and nominative and accusative singular of das-nouns must be practiced.
The abbreviated chart in section 4.131 is expanded below to include the forms of the ein-determiner:

<table>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td colspan="3">SINGULAR</td><td>PLURAL</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>DET</td><td>der</td><td>das</td><td>die</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">N</td><td>der-Det</td><td>r</td><td rowspan="3">s
-</td><td rowspan="3">e
e</td><td rowspan="3">e
e</td></tr>
<tr><td>ein-Det</td><td>-</td></tr>
<tr><td>A</td><td>der&ein</td><td>n</td></tr>
<tr><td>D</td><td>der&ein</td><td colspan="2">m</td><td rowspan="2">r</td><td>n</td></tr>
<tr><td>G</td><td>der&ein</td><td colspan="2">s</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

The possessive determiners, called 'pronouns' in most textbooks, belong in the class of ein-determiners. This term, however, is confusing, since the possessives, when determining the noun, have the same function as der- and ein-determiners. Only when they replace a whole noun phrase are they possessives pronouns, following a slightly different inflection (4.163). The difference between possessive determiner and possessive pronoun is very clear in English:

	DET	NOUN
This is	the a my	car car car
	PRONOUN	
This is	mine	

The possessive determiners are:

mein	'my'	unser	'our'
dein	'your (thy)' (familiar)'	euer	'your (pl familiar)
sein	'his, its'	ihr	'their
ihr	'her'	Ihr	'your' (formal)

When the inflectional morphemes are added to unser and euer, the -e- of the stem is often dropped: unsrem, euren.

Ein- Wagen, mein- Auto, deine Karre, seine Räder stehen vor dem Haus.
Er geht durch ihren Wald, unser- Feld, eure Wiese, ihre Berge.
Er kommt mit Ihrem Bus, meinem Rad, keiner Bahn, seinen Zügen.
Das Auto unseres Betriebs, eures Geschäfts, ihrer Firma, Ihrer Gäste ist dort.

4.14 Adjectives

Part participles and present participles of verbs (3.152-3.153; 3.313-3.314) also belong to the lexical class of adjectives (<Latin adiectivum 'thrown toward;' s Adjektiv, Beiwort, Artwort, Eigenschaftswort).

Adjectives and participles can function in three different syntactical frames:

(1) As part of the predicate (3.317), as a predicate adjective complementing certain verbs:

Er ist müde. 'He is tired.'

(2) As an adverb, modifying a verb phrase (3.4ff):

Er antwortete müde...'He answered tiredly...'

In these instances, the adjective or participles are never inflected in German.

(3) As adjectives, modifying a noun:

Er hat ein müdes Gesicht. 'He has a tired face.'

When functioning as an adjective specifying a noun, German adjectives are inflected (4.141).

Adjectives can be elicited by welch-er+noun when the adjective is preceded by a der-determiner or a possessive determiner:

Welches Auto ist hier? 'Which car is here?' Das rote...

When preceded by the ein-determiner, the question is introduced by was für ein- + noun 'what kind of?'

Was für ein Auto ist hier? 'What kind of a car is here?'
Ein rotes Auto ist hier.

German adjectives which specify nouns are uninflected only in a few instances:

In poetry, sometimes standing behind a noun:

Röslein rot, Hänschen klein, bei einem Wirte wundermild; Jung Siegfried

In brandnames or fixed expressions:

Henkell trocken; hundert Mark bar, Müller senior/junior

In proverbs:

Auf gut Glück. Nur ruhig Blut! Gut Ding will Weile haben.

In foreign adjectives:

ein rosa/lila/oliv/creme Kleid.

Such foreign adjectives denoting colors are often connected with -farben, which is inflected:

ein rosafarbenes, olivenfarbenes Kleid.

One of the major structural innovations of the Germanic languages (1.34) was the development of a two-fold adjective inflection: A determining inflection indicating gender, number, and case of the noun which the adjective specifies, and a reduced inflection, which does not indicate such functional categories:

DETERMINING INFLECTION	REDUCED INFLECTION
mit müdem Gesicht	mit dem müden Gesicht

The determining inflection is sometimes called 'primary' inflection, whereas the reduced inflection is called 'secondary' inflection.

4.141 Determining Adjective Inflection

The determining (primary) inflection of adjectives, traditionally known as the 'strong declension,' is used when the adjective is not preceded by a determiner (4.131) or if the

determiner has no inflectional ending.

When the adjective is not preceded by a determiner, it assumes the determining function and uses the inflectional endings of the der-determiner. However, there is one exception: in the genitive singular of der and das, the determining adjective has an /-n/ instead of the expected /-s/, since most nouns are marked in that case sufficiently by an /-s/:

CASE	NUMBER	GENDER	der-DET.	DETERMINING ADJECTIVE no determiner
N	sg	der	/r/	heißer Kaffee
		das	/s/	frisches Wasser
		die	/ə/	gute Milch
	pl		/ə/	gesunde Getränke
A	sg	der	/n/	heißen Kaffee
		das	/s/	frisches Wasser
		die	/ə/	gute Milch
	pl		/ə/	gesunde Getränke
D	sg	der	/m/	gutem Kaffee
		das	/m/	fischem Wasser
		die	/r/	guter Milch
	pl		/n/	gesunden Getränken
G	sg	der	/s/	! guten Kaffees
		das	/s/	! frischen Wassers
		die	/r/	guter Milch
	pl		/r/	gesunder Getränke

This adjective inflection must be practiced in syntactical context, since English does not have adjective inflections:

Der Kaffee ist heiß. Heißer Kaffee ist gut. Ein heißer Kaffee...

Because the determining adjective inflection has morphemes identical to the der-determiners (except in the genitive singular of der- and das-nouns), this adjective inflection can be introduced together with the der-determiners at an early stage of German instruction. Not only does this approach facilitate the practice of determiners and adjectives at the same time, but it also increases flexibility of expression. Above all, it eliminates the confusion which usually results when the determining and the reduced adjective inflections are introduced at the same time or in consecutive chapters.

It should be noted, however, that the determining adjective inflection is used less frequently than the reduced inflection and that its use depends on the absence of a determiner or determiner ending (4.231).

The determining adjective inflection is also used after a name or title in the genitive, since the genitive modifier has no determiner (4.422): Vaters neuer Wagen. In the same manner, the adjective has the determining inflection after relative pronoun-conjunctions in the genitive: Vater, dessen neuer Wagen...(5.331).

Since two or more adjectives specifying the same noun have the same inflection, noun phrases with numerous adjectives can be used to enlarge the vocabulary in conjunction with the practice of the adjective inflection:

Heißer, schwarzer, starker, ungesüßter Kaffee weckt die Lebensgeister.

'Hot, black, strong, unsweetened coffee awakens (the spirit).'

4.142 Reduced Adjective Inflection

When one or more adjectives specifying a noun are preceded by a determiner which indicates gender, number, and case of that noun (the der- and ein-determiner , the latter except nom sg of der- and nom and acc sg of das-nouns), the adjective no longer needs to indicate such grammatical categories. The adjective has a reduced 'secondary' inflection instead, which is known as 'weak' declension.

This reduced adjective inflection is characterized by /-n/ in the majority of cases, except for the nominative singular of der-nouns and nominative and accusative of das-nouns, in which the ending is /-ə/.

In the following abbreviated chart, the adjective morphemes are capitalized for easy survey:

	SINGULAR						PLURAL
	DET.-TYPE	der DET. ADJ.	DET.-TYPE	das DET. ADJ.	DET.-TYPE	die DET. ADJ.	DET. ADJ.
N	der-Det	r E	der-Det	s E	der&ein	e E	E N
A	der&ein	n N					
D	der&ein	m N				r N	n N
G	der&ein	s N					

As can be seen from the chart, adjectives are inflected with /-n/ outside the solid box. Examples are:

NOM. Der junge Mann, das kleine Kind, die nette Frau, die netten Leute gehen ins Kino.

ACC. Wir gehen durch den grünen Wald, das weite Feld, die bunte Wiese, die bebauten Äcker.

DAT. Wir fahren mit dem alten Wagen, dem großen Auto, dem geborgten Rad, den häßlichen Karren.

GEN. Die Bücher meines guten Onkels, dieses netten Mädchens, eurer lieben Mutter, ihrer reizenden

Eltern sind im Regal.

If the determining adjective inflection (4.141) is introduced together with the der-determiners at an early stage of German instruction, normally no confusion of the two adjective inflection results.

The rule summarizing the use of both inflections is: If one or more adjectives are preceded by a determining ending, the adjective has the reduced inflection of either /-ə/ or /-n/. If the adjective(s) is (are) not preceded by a determining ending, the adjective has the determining endings itself.

Only in advanced classes can the following chart serve as a survey. The adjective morphemes are capitalized, and the letters in parentheses show the most frequent inflectional morphemes of nouns (gen sg of der- and das-nouns /-s/, dative pl /-n/; 4.124). Since the reduced inflection is more frequent, it is given in the top row:

	SINGULAR						PLURAL	
	der		das		die			
	DET.	ADJ.	DET.	ADJ.	DET.	ADJ.	DET.	ADJ.
N	r	E / R	s	E / S	e	E / E	e	N / E
A	n	N / N	s	E / S	e	E / E	e	N / E
D	m	N / M	m	N / M	r	N / R	n	N / N (n)
G	s	N / N (s)	s	N / N (s)	r	N / R		

4.143 Inflectional Fluctuations

A typical noun phrase can be viewed as consisting of three slots:

NOUN PHRASE		
SLOT 1	SLOT 2	SLOT 3
DETERMINER	ADJECTIVE	NOUN

Slot 1, the determiner slot, may be unoccupied (4.13):

DETERMINER	ADJECTIVE	NOUN
	gute	*Freunde*
	'good	friends'

Or, slot 1 may be occupied by a *der*-determiner (4.131) or an *ein*-determiner (4.312):

DETERMINER	ADJECTIVE	NOUN
diese	*guten*	*Freunde*
'these	good	friends'
mein	*guter*	*Freund*
'my	good	friend'

Slot 2, the adjective slot, is extendable, and may contain several adjectives:

DETERMINER	ADJECTIVE	NOUN
diese	*guten, alten*	*Freunde*
'these	good, old	friends'

However, in some instances, the determiners can function as adjectives and move into the adjective slot, following adjective inflection. Such determiners are primarily *ein-*, *jen-*, *jed-*, *solch-* and *manch-*:

DETERMINER	DETERM=ADJECT.	ADJECTIVE	NOUN
ein	*solcher*	*guter*	*Freund*
einem	*jeden*	*guten*	*Freund*
der	*eine*	*gute*	*Freund*

In other instances, some determiners can be uninflected and function as adverbs:

ADVERB	DETERMINER	ADJECTIVE	NOUN
manch	ein	guter	Freund
manch	---	guter	Freund
so(lch)	einem	guten	Freund
solch	---	gutem	Freund

The determiners which can function as adverbs in the above manner are primarily manch- and solch, as well as welch-, which is no longer an interrogative determiner (welcher Freund? 'which friend?') but is used in exclamations: Welch ein guter Freund! 'What a good friend!'

In spite of their numerical or determining character, the following are always adjectives:

ander- 'other' beide 'both' einige 'some'
einzeln- 'individual, few' mehrere 'several'

DETERMINER	ADJECTIVES	NOUN
der	andere gute	Freund
---	beiden guten	Freunden
die	beiden guten	Freunde
---	einiger neuer	Freunde
der	einzelne gute	Freund
---	mehrere gute	Freunde

Einige and mehrere are always in the plural and are never preceded by a determiner.

Uninflected determiners, followed by adjectives with determining inflection are:

ein bißchen 'a bit, a little' ein paar 'a few'
mehr 'more' ein wenig 'a bit'
etwas 'something' nichts 'nothing' followed by nominalized adjectives (4.145)

DETERMINER	ADJECTIVE		NOUN
ein bißchen	frisches		Brot
ein paar	neue		Autos
mehr	gute		Freunde
ein wenig	frisches		Brot
etwas		Gutes	
nichts		Neues	

The adjectives all- and viel- are in a state of flux, and even native Germans are uncertain about their usage:

All can be an adverb and can be followed by a determiner:

ADVERB	DETERMINER	ADJECTIVE	NOUN
all	das	frische	Brot

All can be a der-determiner in the singular and replace jed- in the plural:

DETERMINER	ADJECTIVE	NOUN
alles	Gute	
alle	guten	Freunde

When all means a whole bulk, it can be replaced by ganz:

das ganze frische Brot

Viel and wenig are generally adjectives:

DETERMINER	ADJECTIVES	NOUN
das	viele, frische	Brot
die	wenigen, guten	Freunde
---	vieles frisches	Brot
---	wenige gute	Freunde

Viel and wenig can also be uninflected, followed by adjectives with the determining inflection:

viel frisches Brot
wenig frisches Brot

4.144 Comparison of Adjectives

English has two types of adjective comparison:

POSITIVE:	'small'	'beautiful'
COMPARATIVE	'smaller'	'more beautiful'
SUPERLATIVE:	'smallest'	'most beautiful'

The synthetic form is identical with German, because it is of Germanic origin. It is used primarily with monosyllabic adjectives which have German cognates (1.32). The analytic form is of Romance (1.2) origin, used mainly with polysyllabic adjectives and has no equivalent in German.

Forming the comparative (<Latin comparativus (gradus) 'comparing (grade),' r Komparativ, e erste Steigerungsstufe, e Mehrstufe): klein-er, schön-er. Since this morpheme was OHG -ir (1.422), most adjectives with an umlaut-susceptible vowel (4.132) have umlaut: älter, größer. (Phonological conditioning of in ected adjectives is covered in section 4.1441).

The superlative (<Latin superlativus (gradus) 'highest (grade)' (r Superlativ, e zweite Steigerungsstufe, e Höchststufe) is formed by adding the morpheme /¨st/ to the positive stem: klein-st-, schön-st-, ält-est-.

Only a few adjectives have suppletive forms in the comparative and superlative (1.52):

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
gut 'good'	besser	best-
viel 'much'	mehr	meist-
wenig 'few, little'	weniger/minder	wenigst-/mindest-

From some adverbs of locality, comparative and superlative adjective-forms can be formed (3.421):

ADVERB	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
vorn	hinter-	hinterst-
oben	ober-	oberst-
unten	unter-	unterst-

ADVERB ADJECTIVE

Er wohnt oben/unten. Er wohnt in der oberen/unteren Etage.

Adjectives (but not adverbs (3.411) and predicate adjectives (3.324)) add the inflectional endings according to their determiner (4.13):

	REDUCED INFLECTION			DETERMINING INFLECTION	
POS.:	der	reich-e	Mann	ein	reich-er	Mann
COM.:	der	reich-er-e	Mann	ein	reich-er-er	Mann
SUP.:	der	reich-st-e	Mann		reich-st-er	Mann!

These forms of the adjective are used to specify nouns:

Positive is used for a descriptive specification:

Der alte, freundliche Herr...'The old, friendly gentleman...'

The positive is also used to compare two equal entities by combining ebenso/genauso/so+positive+noun...wie:

Er hat ein ebenso großes Haus wie wir.
'He has a house as big as ours.'

The comparative is used to compare two entities on a different level:

comparative+noun...als

Er hat ein größeres Haus als wir.
'He has a bigger house than we.'

Sometimes, the comparative is used without a referent:

Ein älterer Herr sitzt dort. 'An older gentleman sits there.'

The superlative indicates a highest degree:

Er hat das größte Haus der Stadt.
'He has the biggest house in town.'

The superlative is used with the der-determiner in most instances. Only when used in an address or as modification, no determiner is used:

Liebste Mutter! Ich komme mit größtem Vergnügen.
'Dearest Mother! I will come with greatest pleasure.'

An absolute superlative is formed with aller- preceding the superlative form:

Mit dem allergrößten Vergnügen. Die allerneuesten Nachrichten.
('With the greatest pleasure. The latest information.')

Another absolute superlative is formed with aufs+superlative+/ə/: aufs freundlichste 'the friendliest' functioning

as adverb.

For further discussion of modifiers of comparison and modifier clauses of comparison, see sections 3.428 and 5.3347.

4.1441 Phonological Conditioning of Adjective Morphemes

The inventory of inflectional morphemes of adjectives contains six morphemes which occur in the determining inflection (4.141): /-r/, /-s/, /-ə/, /-n/, /-m/. In the reduced inflection (4.142) only the morphemes /-ə/ and /-n/ occur.

These morphemes were analyzed in this manner to show their identity with the der-determiners and for practical reasons. However, all consonantal morphemes are preceded by /ə/ in all instances: gut- gut-er Kaffee. There is no phonological conditioning of this predictable /ə/-inclusion.

However, adjective stems occasionally lose a /ə/ preceding an inflectional adjective morpheme. They are adjectives which end with -en, -el, -er:

offen - das offn-e Fenster
dunkel - dunkl-es Bier
bitter - bittr-er Tee

The adjective hoch loses the -c- when the inflectional morpheme begins with /-ə/; nah, in turn, includes a -c- in superlative:

hoch - das hoh-e Haus   nah - die nächste Stunde

The morphemes of the comparative and superlative are /-¨-ər/ and /-¨-st/ respectively.

There is no phonological conditioning of the comparative morphemes.

The superlative-morpheme includes a /ə/ when the adjective ends in a dental or a sibilant (2.31):

breit - die breit-est-e Straße
kurz - das kürz-est-e Wort

However, when the adjective is formed with -isch or when the adjective is a past participle or present participle of verbs whose stem ends with a -t, no /ə/ is included before the superlative-morpheme.

malerisch - die malerisch-st-e Landschaft
reizend - das reizend-st-e Kind
gefürchtet- die gefürchtet-st-e Krise

The comparative and superlative morphemes require umlaut of monosyllabic adjectives with an umlaut-susceptible back vowel:

lang-länger-längst   klug-klüger-klügst   hoch-höher-höchst

However, in adjectives whose stem vowels are preceded or followed by l or r, no umlaut occurs. Adjectives with the stem-vowel u and followed by nasal plus consonant also have no umlaut:

a + l/r: barsch-barscher, blank, brav, fahl, falsch, flach, kahl, klar, lahm, platt, rasch, schlank, starr, wahr, zart

o + l/r: froh-froher, hohl, morsch, roh, schroff, stolz, toll, voll

u + nasal + consonant: bunt-bunter, dumpf, plump, rund, wund

Some adjectives are used with or without umlaut in the comparative and superlative:

bang-banger/bänger, glatter/glätter, nasser/nässer, schmaler/schmäler; frommer/frömmer, roter/röter; gesunder/gesünder.

4.145 Nominalized Adjectives

Adjectives and participles can be nominalized when they refer to 'man,' 'woman,' 'people,' or 'thing:'

der alte Mann	der Alte	'the old one'
die junge Frau	die Junge	'the young one'
das gute Ding	das Gute	'the good thing'

Such adjectives are capitalized, but they are inflected as adjectives according to their determiners:

der Alte - ein Alter das Gute - nichts Gutes

Many of these nominalized adjectives and participles have become vocabulary items: (i.e. lexicalized)

ADJECTIVE: r/e Heilige 'saint'
r/e Irre 'crazy person'
r/e Arme 'poor person'
r/e Fremde 'stranger,' etc.

PAST PART.: r/e Abgeordnete 'representative'
r/e Angeklagte 'defendant'
r/e Bekannte 'acquaintance'
r/e Verwandte 'relative,' etc.

PRES. PART.: r/e Reisende 'traveler,'
r/e Leidende 'invalid'
r/e Lebende 'living person'
r/e Vorsitzende 'chairperson,' etc.

Names of nationalities end either with -er or -e and are nouns: r Amerikaner, e Amerikanerin, r Grieche, e Griechin. Only r/e Deutsche is a nominalized adjective and it is always inflected as such:

Sie ist eine Deutsche. Er ist Deutscher.

Two nominalized adjectives, used only with das, can be formed from languages and colors:

s Deutsche, Englische, Lateinische; Grüne, Rote, Schwarze
s gute Deutsch, s klassische Latein; das Grün der Wälder

Nominalized adjectives inflected with the determining inflection as if they specified das-nouns sg are used

particularly after the uninflected expressions (4.143) nichts, viel, etwas, wenig, mehr etc.:

Nichts Neues, 'nothing new,' er kommt mit viel Besserem, 'he comes with (something) much better,' sie sprach von wenig Erfreulichem, 'she spoke of few pleasant (things).'

4.146 Extension of Adjectives

The adjective slot in a noun phrase can be expanded. This expanded adjective slot can have the following occupants:

Several adjectives:

Meine guten, alten, lieben Freunde kommen heute.

Numbers:

Seine zwei ersten neuen Autos waren Volkswagen.
'His first two new cars were Volkswagens.'

Adverbs:

Unsere besonders freundlichen Nachbarn helfen uns.
'Our especially kind neighbors help us.'

Uninflected adjectives functioning as adverbs:

Das ist eine ganz schön schwere Arbeit.
'This is quite a ( ) hard job.'

The above occupants of the extended adjective slot differ from English only in that the English adverb is generally marked by '-ly' and that the German adjectives are inflected (4.141ff).

Extended adjective constructions differ from English and require a more detailed explanation:

Underlying each adjective which specifies a noun is another clause:

Ich lese ein Buch. Das Buch ist gut.>Ich lese ein gutes Buch.

To transform the predicate adjective of the second underlying clause into an adjective specifying a noun, the subject and the finite verb of the underlying clause are deleted, and the predicate adjective is posited in front of the noun in the first clause. In German, that adjective is inflected.

Not only adjectives (3.315), but also past participles of passive sentences (3.18) can become specifying adjectives:

Ich lese ein Buch. Das Buch wird viel gelobt. Ich lese ein viel gelobtes Buch.
'I read a widely acclaimed book.'

When the underlying clause is in the active voice and the present tense, its finite verb can be transformed into a present participle (3.153) and function as specifying adjective:

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Ich lese das Buch. Das Buch liegt hier. >Ich lese das hier liegende Buch.
'I read the (here lying) book. I read the book which lies here.'

In English, there are constraints on how far and with what occupants the adjective slot can be extended. In the above example, the English sentence must be rendered by a relative clause (5.331).

In German, adjective slots can be extended to contain not only adjectives, participle, and adverbs (the latter being modifiers of the predicate in the underlying clause; 3.4ff), but also to contain objects and modifiers of the underlying clause:

Ich lese das Buch. Das Buch wurde mir letzte Woche von meinem guten Freund geliehen. >Ich lese das mir letzte Woche von meinem guten Freund geliehene Buch.
('I read the book which was lent to me last week by my good friend.')

In German, therefore, the adjective slot can contain not only adjectives and participles, but all other clause constituents (5.11) except a subject and a finite verb. Since such extended adjective constructions must be broken down into relative clauses or main clauses in English, practice is needed in forming such extended adjective constructions from two clauses and in translating such constructions into English. The German extended adjectives also have a transformational relationship to relative clauses (5.331), since both function to collapse clauses in order to avoid repetition of noun phrases.

4.147 Numbers

Numbers are categorized as cardinal number (<Latin cardinalis 'main') e Kardinalzahl, e Grundzahl) and ordinal number (<Latin ordinare 'to order') (e Ordnungszahl).

4.1471 Cardinal Numbers

Cardinal numbers indicate a measure or amount and can be elicited by wieviel?+ a noun in the singular 'how much?' or wieviele + a noun in the plural 'how many?' In most instances, numbers are uninflected adjectives.

The cardinal numbers are:

0	null	10	zehn	20	zwanzig	90	neunzig
1	eins	11	elf	21	einundzwanzig	100	(ein)hundert
2	zwei	12	zwölf	22	zweiundzwanzig	101	hunderteins
3	drei	13	dreizehn		etc.	102	hundertzwei
4	vier	14	vierzehn	30	dreißig		etc.
5	fünf	15	fünfzehn	40	vierzig	200	zweihundert
6	sechs	16	sechzehn	50	fünfzig	300	dreihundert
7	sieben	17	siebzehn	60	sechzig		etc.
8	acht	18	achtzehn	70	siebzig	1000	(ein)tausend
9	neun	19	neunzehn	80	achtzig	1101	(ein)tausend-einhunderteins

Eins as a number and at the end of numbers has an -s, but it is the ein-determiner when preceding a noun (4.132).

zwei is used as zwo especially on the telephone in order to avoid confusion with drei.

In a few instances, the numbers 2-12 can be inflected in idiomatic expressions:

Man kann nicht zwei Herren dienen. Man kann nicht zweien dienen.
'One cannot serve two masters. One cannot serve two.'
Er streckte alle viere von sich.
'He stretched all four (limbs) out.'
Alle fünfe gerade sein lassen.
('Let five be a straight number.') ('Not to worry.')

When writing out numbers, they are written in one word up to 999,999: neunhundertneunundneunzigtausendneunhundertneunundneunzig.

Numbers denoting years are read thus:

1984: neunzehnhundertvierundachtzig

Years are either spoken alone or with im Jahr(e):

Er wurde 1922 geboren. Er wurde im Jahre 1922 geboren.

Telephone numbers are read individually:

36 41 72: drei-sechs-vier-eins-sieben-zwei.

When reading German currency, Mark is always singular; Pfennig-e can be used both in singular and the plural:

DM 154,89: hundertvierundfünfzig Mark neunundachtzig (Pfennig(e))

Numbers from one million are die-nouns and have plural:

1 000 000 eine Million
3 000 000 drei Millionen
1 000 000 000 eine Milliarde '1 billion'
1 000 000 000 000 eine Billion '1,000 billions'

Numbers can be nominalized as die-nouns. The plural is rarely used:

Die Drei und die Sieben sind Glückszahlen.
'The three and the seven are lucky numbers.'
Tausende warteten auf den Präsidenten.
'Thousands waited for the president.'

Such numerical nouns are used to denote streetcar or bus lines:

Die Fünf hält dort. Fahren Sie mit der Neun!
'The five stops there. Take number nine!'

Die Elf denotes a soccer team:

Heute spielt die Kölner Elf.

Grades in schools are also denoted by such nouns in northern Germany:

In Deutsch hat er eine Eins, aber in Mathematik eine Fünf.
'In German he has an A, but in math an F.'

For age:

Sie hat die Dreißig überschritten. Mit Siebzig soll man ruhig leben.
('She is over 30.') 'By age seventy, one should take it easy.'

Another noun can be formed from the numbers 1-12 by adding -er; it is a der-noun and denotes one number in a group:

Die Einer kommen vor den Zehnern.
'The ones come before the tens.'

School grades in southern Germany are expressed by these der-nouns:

Er hat einen Einser in Deutsch, aber einen Fünfer in Mathe.

Approximate age:

Er ist in den Sechzigern.
'He is in his sixties.'

Money, stamps:

Bitte geben Sie mir fünf Mark in Einsern!
'Please give me five marks in ones.'
Das ist keinen Sechser (Dreier) wert.
'This is not worth a nickel (two cents).'

Hundert or tausend can be a noun in the plural, but it is inflected like an adjective:

Die Arbeit Hunderter von Menschen.
'The work of hundreds of people.'
Er sprach zu Tausenden.
'He addressed thousands.'

Numbers can also be adjectives when denoting decades, but they are not inflected and have the ending -er:

In den zwanziger Jahren. Die dreißiger Jahre waren schwer.
'In the twenties. The thirties were hard.'

Where English uses commas, German uses full stops: DM 5.322.257. Conversely, German uses commas before decimals: 0,6 null Komma sechs; 20,33 zwanzig Komma dreiunddreißig.

4.1472 Ordinal Numbers

Ordinal numbers arrange things and person in a sequence: 'the first, second,' etc.

Ordinal numbers are formed from cardinal numbers by the morpheme /-t/ for numbers from 1-19: der vierte, fünfzehnte, but with /-st/ for numbers above 20: der zwanzigste, hunderste, dreihundertfünfundzwanzigste.

Ordinal numbers are adjectives and are inflected as such. They are elicited by der (das, die) wievielte? 'the how manyeth?'

1. der erste, 3. dritte and 8. achte are irregularly formed.

When expressing the ordinal numbers not in words but in numbers, a full stop is used to show their ordinal character:

der 1. = der erste 'the first'
der 5. = der fünfte 'the fifth'

However, with names of kings, Roman numerals are used:

Karl V. = Karl der Fünfte 'Charles the Fifth'

The first, der erste, has der letzte as its antonym. Both have a comparative form: der erstere, der letztere 'the former and the latter:'

Inge und Sybille sind meine Freundinnen. Die erstere ist Studentin, letztere arbeitet in einem Büro.
'Inge and Sybille are my friends. The former is a student, the latter works in an office.'

Dates are elicited by der wievielte? or wann? The inflection of the ordinal numbers follows reduced adjective inflection, since they refer to der Tag: der erste Mai. The day always precedes the month and is written in numerals; months are in numerals in official writings:

11. Juni = der elfte Juni   11.6. = der elfte sechste

On letters one writes the date

Hamburg, den 10. Mai 1979

When giving the name of the day also, it is written

Hamburg, am Freitag, dem 10. Mai 1979

Uninflected ordinal numbers can be connected with superlatives and give an order in a sequence:

Er ist der drittbeste Schüler. Das ist der zweitschnellste Zug.
'He is the third best student. This is the second fastest train.'

Often the determiner jed- precedes the ordinal numbers:

Er kommt jeden dritten Tag. 'He comes every third day.'

4.1473 Other Numerical Expressions

Time of Day:

The official manner to indicate time counts the day as

24 hours:

8.15 Uhr=acht Uhr fünfzehn '8:15 a.m.'
20.15 Uhr=zwanzig Uhr fünfzehn '8:15 p.m.'
0.30 Uhr=null Uhr dreiβig '12:30 a.m.'

Colloquially, times are given with adverbs (3.411) morgens, mittags, nachmittags, abends and nachts to avoid misunderstandings in 12-hour day:

Er kommt um 3 Uhr morgens an, aber sie kommt um 6 Uhr abends.
'He'll arrive at 3 a.m., but she'll be here at 6 p.m.'

Colloquially, times are given thus:

8.00 Uhr = acht Uhr
8.05 Uhr = fünf (Minuten) nach acht (Uhr)
8.15 Uhr = Viertel nach acht; Viertel neun
8.20 Uhr = zwanzig (Minuten) nach acht (Uhr); zehn vor halb neun
8.30 Uhr = halb neun
8.40 Uhr = zwanzig (Minuten) vor neun; zehn nach halb neun
8.45 Uhr = Viertel vor neun; drei Viertel neun
8.50 Uhr = zehn (Minuten) vor neun (Uhr)
9.00 Uhr = neun (Uhr)

Times are elicited by wieviel Uhr ist es? Wie spät ist es? 'What time is it?' The answer begins with Es ist, or Ich habe:

Es ist drei (Uhr). 'It's three (o'clock).'
Ich habe fünf (Uhr). 'My clock shows five (o'clock).'

Numbers in Mathematics

Numbers in mathematics are written and spoken thus:

9 + 4 = 13	Neun und vier ist dreizehn; neun plus vier
9 - 5 = 4	Neun weniger fünf ist vier; neun minus fünf
9 · 5 = 45 9 x 5 = 45	Neun mal fünf ist fünfundvierzig
9 : 3 = 3	Neun geteilt durch drei ist drei

Decimals

Decimals are formed from ordinal numbers with the morpheme /-əl/: das Fünftel 1/5 'one fifth.' This morpheme resulted from contraction of ordinal numbers r Teil: der vierte Teil > das Viertel.

Decimals can be das-Nouns: das Drittel, das Zehntel, das Hundertstel.

They can also be uninflected adjectives:

Er hat fünfviertel Liter Wein getrunken.

1/2 halb and 1/1 ganz are inflected adjectives or nouns: die Hälfte, das Ganze:

Er iβt ein halbes Brot. Die Hälfte von 10 ist 5.
'He eats half a loaf of bread. One half of 10 is 5.'

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Er hat die ganze Milch getrunken. Vergiß das Ganze! ('He drank all the milk.') 'Forget the whole (thing)!'

When halb is used after another number, it is uninflected and written in one word with the preceding number:

Ich habe zweieinhalb Liter Bier. 'I have two and a half liters of beer.'

1-1/2 is either eineinhalb or anderthalb:

Er war anderthalb (eineinhalb) Jahre im Ausland. 'He was abroad for one and a half years.'

Numerical Adverbs:

Adverbs can be formed from ordinal numbers by the format -ens:erstens, zweitens 'firstly, secondly.' When written in numerals, they are not distinguished from ordinal numbers: 1., 2.

Ich schreibe ihm keinen Brief. Erstens habe ich keine Lust, zweitens keine Zeit und drittens rufe ich ihn lieber an.
'I won't write him a letter. Firstly, I don't feel like it, secondly, I have no time, and thirdly I'd rather call him.'

Another type of adverb can be formed from cardinal numbers by adding -mal: einmal, zweimal 'one time, two times.' They are elicited by wie oft? 'how often?'

Er hat den Film dreimal gesehen. 'He has seen the movie three times.' ein für allemal 'once and for all.'

4.15 Prepositions

Prepositions (<Latin praepositio 'posited before') (e Präposition, s Verhältniswort) are lexical items which function in the same manner as inflectional morphemes and determiners to indicate syntactical relationships. Therefore, inflectional morphemes, determiners, and prepositions are sometimes classed together as 'functional markers' (s Funktionszeichen) (4.23ff).

Syntactically, prepositions introduce prepositional phrases, which function as obligatory complements of the predicate (3.3ff) or as modifiers (3.4ff).

As an obligatory complement, the preposition is determined by the valence of the predicate: danken für A, verantwortlich sein für A (3.3325).

As modifiers and facultative complements of predicates, the choice of the preposition is semantic:

Er geht mit dem Freund durch den Park zum Kino.

Since prepositions require the noun phrase to be in a certain case, prepositions are organized according to their cases.

Some prepositions do not stand in front of the noun phrase, but behind it, they are postpositions (<Latin post-

positio 'posited after') (e Postposition).

Prepositions are highly idiomatic and have no 'basic' meaning. Frequently their meaning can only be understood in context.

Prepositions can also function lexically and morphologically as separable prefixes of verbs (3.131), e.g., ausfahren, and of the nouns derived from the verbs, e.g., e Ausfahrt.

A few prepositions can also be nominalized as das-nouns: s Für und Wider, s Auf und Ab, etc. (4.12).

Prepositions introducing prepositional phrases which function as obligatory complements or modifiers and are therefore constituents of clauses (5.11) are discussed below in detail.

Many prepositions are contracted with the following der-determiner, for example, zu der > zur, zu dem > zum. These contractions are mentioned with the individual prepositions.

There are innumerable idiomatic expressions and proverbs containing prepositions: only a very small selection is given here.

For further discussion of prepositions as prefixes of verbs, see section 3.131; prepositional objects 3.3325; prepositional phrases as modifiers 3.413-3.429; 4.423; use of prepositions 4.232; prepositional pronouns, 4.162.

4.151 Prepositions with Accusative

The prepositions which take the accusative case are:

durch, für, gegen, ohne, um, bis, entlang

Durch

functions mainly in prepositional phrases as modifiers (3.413); contraction: durchs:

Modifier of place (3.321); (wo?) 'where?' 'across, through'

Er schwamm durch den Fluß. Wir reisen durch Deutschland.
'He swam through the river. We travel through Germany.'

Modifier of time (3.322); wie lange? 'for how long?'

'through' mostly after the noun:

Er muß sein ganzes Leben (hin) durch arbeiten.
'He has to work his whole life through.'

Modifier of cause (3.424); (durch wen/wodurch?) 'through whom/what?' 'through/by'

Er fand das Buch durch eine Annonce.
'He found the book through an ad.'
Das Haus wurde durch Feuer zerstört.
'The house was destroyed by fire.'

Idiomatic expressions:

durch dick und dünn 'through thick and thin'
durch und durch 'through and through'
mit dem Kopf durch die Wand wollen 'batter one's head against a brick wall'

As a verbal prefix, durch can be either separable or inseparable (3.131).

Für

determined by valence of predicates (3.3ff), e.g., sich interessieren für, dankbar sein für, etc.; contraction fürs.

As modifier of time (3.422): (wann/für wie lange/wie oft?) 'when/for how long/how often?;' 'for'

Kann ich Sie für einen Moment sprechen?
'Can I talk to you for a moment?'

Mood (3.423); (für wen/wofür?) 'for whom/what?;' 'for'

Der Vater arbeitet für die Familie. Es ist schwer für ihn.
'The father works for his family. It is hard for him.'

Price or value; (für wieviel?) 'for how much?;' 'for'

Er hat das Auto für tausend Mark gekauft.
'He bought the car for a thousand marks.'
Bitte geben Sie mir für 6 Mark Benzin!
'Please give me six mark's worth of gas.'

Comparison (3.428) 'for/as'

Für einen Ausländer spricht er gut Deutsch.
'For a foreigner he speaks good German.'

Idiomatic expressions:

für immer und ewig 'for ever and ever'
Schritt für Schritt, Stück für Stück 'step by step,' 'piece by piece'
für sich allein 'for oneself/by oneself'

Gegen

As prepositional object of verbs such as verstoßen gegen A 'violate,' sich wehren gegen A 'defend against,' etc.

As modifier of place (gegen wen/wogegen?) 'against, toward'

Das Rad fuhr gegen den Baum/gegen den Wind.
'The bike ran against the tree/drove against the wind.'

Time (um wieviel Uhr/wann?) 'around, toward'

Er kommt gegen 6 Uhr. 'He comes around 6.'
Gegen Morgen begann es zu schneien. 'Toward morning it started to snow.'

Mood (gegen wen/wogegen?) 'against'

Eine Medizin gegen Kopfschmerzen. Ich bin gegen diese Idee.
'A medicine against headaches. I am against this idea.'

Exchange 'against'

Ich wette eins gegen fünf. Er tauscht seinen VW gegen einen Opel.
'I bet one against five. He trades his VW for an Opel.'

Comparison 'in comparison to'

Gegen gestern ist es heute warm.
'In comparison to yesterday, it is warm today.'

In poetry, gegen is shortened to gen.

Wider also means 'against,' but it is no longer used as a preposition, except in idiomatic expressions such as wider Erwarten 'against expectations' and wider Willen 'against (someone's) will/desire.' It also occurs as a prefix: widersprechen, r Widerspruch 'contradict(ion).'

Ohne

As modifier of mood (ohne wen/was?) 'without, out of'

Sie geht immer ohne Hut. Er ist ohne Arbeit.
'She always goes without a hat. He is out of work.'

Condition

Ohne deine Hilfe könnte ich es nicht schaffen.
'Without your help I couldn't do it.'

Idiomatic expressions:

Ohne Fleiß kein Preis.
'No prize without work/industry.'
Keine Rose ohne Dornen.
'No rose without thorns.'

Um

Um is required by the valence of many predicates: bitten um 'ask for' (3.33). Contraction um das > ums.

Modifier of

place (wo/wohin?) 'around'

Sie sitzen um den Tisch. Er geht um das Haus.
'They sit around the table. He goes around the house.'

Time (wann/um wieviel Uhr?) 'at' exact time

Der Unterricht beginnt um 9 Uhr.
'Class begins at 9 o'clock.'

approximate time 'around'

Um Ostern blühen die Tulpen.
'Around Easter the tulips bloom.'

Mood: difference, degree (um wieviel?) 'by'

Er ist um 3 Jahre älter als ich. Es ist um 10 Grad wärmer.
'He is 3 years older than I. It is 10 degrees warmer.'

Worth 'for'

Mein Auto ist um 500 DM zu verkaufen.
'My car is for sale for 500 marks.'

Bis

is used mostly without a following determiner, so that the accusative case is rarely visible. It functions as modifier of

Time (wie lange?) 'until'

Er blieb bis 12 Uhr/bis Ostern/bis zuletzt.
'He stayed until 12 o'clock/until Easter/until last.'

Most frequently, another preposition follows bis:

bis vor wenigen Tagen/bis nach den Ferien
'until a few days ago/until after the vacation.'

In greetings of departure, bis is used often:

Bis gleich/bis morgen/bis zum nächsten Mal!
('Until soon)/till tomorrow/until the next time!'

Limitations of time are expressed by von-bis:

Geöffnet von 9 bis 12. Von Montag bis Freitag.
'Open from 9 to 12. From Monday to Friday.'

Place (wie weit/bis wohin?) 'to'

Der Zug fährt nur bis Hamburg.
'The train travels only to Hamburg.'
Wir stiegen bis zur Spitze des Berges.
'We climbed (up) to the top of the mountain.'

Limitation of place is also expressed by von-bis 'from-to:'

Er geht von seinem Haus bis zur Post.
'He walks from his house to the post office.'

Mood indicating an exception with auf 'except/but:'

Alle kamen bis auf ihn. Bis auf einen Fehler war alles gut.
'Everyone came except him. Except for one mistake all was good.'

Entlang

is a postposition with accusative, following the noun (with genitive it is a preposition: 4.154).

Modifier of place (wo entlang?) 'along/down'

Sie gehen die Straße entlang.
'They go along/down the street.'

4.152 Prepositions with Dative

The most frequent prepositions with the dative case are: aus, außer, bei, mit, nach, seit, von and zu.

Aus

is required by the valence of many predicates (3.3325) and is the separable prefix of many verbs (3.131). In prepositional modifiers (3.42ff), aus functions as modifier of

Place (woraus/woher?) 'from/out of'

Er kommt aus dem Haus. Sie trinkt Tee aus einem Glas.
'He comes out of the house. She drinks tea from a glass.'
Sie ist aus guter Familie/aus Paris/aus erster Ehe.
'She comes from a good family/from Paris/from the first marriage.'

Time (aus welcher Zeit?) 'from'

Bilder aus der Kindheit/aus dem Mittelalter/aus dem Krieg.
'Pictures from childhood/from the Middle Ages/from the war.'

Aus is only used with time long ago: recent times are indicated by von (4.153): Bilder von der vorigen Woche.

Mood: instrument (woraus?) 'of'

Ein Herz aus Gold/aus Stein. Ein Kleid aus Wolle/Seide.
'A heart of gold/of stone. A dress of wool/of silk.'

Cause (warum/weshalb?) 'from/out of/for'

Er tut das aus Mitleid/aus Liebe/aus Angst.
'He does that from pity/out of love/for fear.'

Idiomatic expressions:

aus der Haut fahren 'to blow one's top'
aus dem Regen in die Traufe kommen
'to go from the frying pan into the fire'
sich etwas aus dem Kopf schlagen 'to drop (a plan)'
aus der Rolle fallen 'to misbehave'

Außer

functions only in modifiers of mood and is always followed by a noun without determiner.

ein Major außer Dienst (a.D.) 'a retired major'

Modifier of mood (außer was?) 'except for/besides'

Immer geöffnet außer Sonntag.
'Always open except for Sunday.'
Außer meinem Vater kam auch mein Onkel.
'Besides my father, my uncle also came too.'

Idiomatic expressions:

außer Gefahr/außer Atem/außer Reichweite sein
'to be out of danger/out of breath/out of reach'
außer sich sein vor Freude/Wut
'to be beside oneself with joy/anger'

4.152

Bei

functions in the valence of many predicates and as separable prefix of verbs. (Contraction: beim). It can be a modifier of

Place (wo/wobei?) 'at/near'

> Pasing bei München. Bei Basel wendet sich der Rhein nach Norden.
> 'Pasing near Munich. At Basle the Rhine turns to the north.'

With places other than geographical terms, bei competes with an (4.153):

> Er wohnt bei/an der Kirche/bei/an dem Marktplatz.
> 'He lives next to the church/at the marketplace.'

With persons, bei must be used:

> Sie wohnt bei den Eltern/bei uns/bei Meiers.
> 'She lives with her parents/with us/at Meier's.'

Time (wann?) 'at'

> Bei Tagesanbruch/bei Sonnenaufgang/bei der Geburt/bei Beginn der Vorstellung/bei dieser Gelegenheit
> 'at daybreak/at sunrise/at the birth/at the beginning of the performance/at this opportunity'

Mood (wobei?) 'in/with/over/amidst'

> Er arbeitet bei schlechtem Licht/bei offenem Fenster.
> 'He works in bad light/with the window open.'
> Bei einer Tasse Kaffee/bei großem Lärm diskutieren wir es.
> 'Over a cup of coffee/amidst great noise, we discuss it.

Contrast (wobei?) 'in spite of'

> Bei allem Unglück haben wir doch Glück gehabt.
> 'In spite of all misfortune, we were still lucky.'

Idiomatic expressions:

> schwören bei Gott/bei allem, was heilig ist
> 'to swear by God/by all that is holy'
> bei weitem 'by far'   beizeiten 'in time'
> nicht bei Verstand/bei Trost sein 'to be out of one's mind'

Mit

is a very frequent preposition, used in the valence of many predicates and as a prefix of many separable verbs. In prepositional modifiers, it is primarily a mood, indicating instrument, accompaniment or mood:

Instrument (womit?) 'with'

> Mit Tinte schreiben/mit Geld bezahlen/mit dem Rad fahren
> 'to write in ink/to pay with money/to go by bike'

Accompaniment (mit wem/womit?) 'with'

Der Mann mit Brille/die Reise mit dem Freund
'The man with glasses/the trip with the friend.'

Mood (womit?) 'with'

Mit großer Freude/mit vielem Dank/mit Schrecken
'With great joy/with many thanks/with a shock.'

Idiomatic expressions:

mit Müh' und Not/mit Ach und Krach 'with great trouble'
mit Lust und Liebe 'with joy'
Das geht nicht mit rechten Dingen zu 'that can't be right'

Nach

All verbs with the prefix nach are separable, and many predicates require a prepositional object with nach, e.g. verlangen/fragen nach D. In modifiers, nach functions as modifier of

Place (wohin?) 'to'

in front of geographical terms without a determiner (with a determiner: in: in die Schweiz, 4.231):

Sie fahren nach Paris/England/Europa.
'They travel to Paris/England/Europe.'

Time (wann/wonach?) 'after'

Nach dem Essen/nach Weihnachten/nach den Ferien/
5 nach 10/nach Christi Geburt (n.C.)
'After dinner/after Christmas/after the vacations/five past/after ten/after Christ (A.D.).'

The opposite of nach is vor 'before' (4.153).

Mood (wonach?) 'according to:'

nach dem Gesetz/nach dem Alphabet/nach meiner Meinung (meiner Meinung nach)/nach meinem Geschmack
'According to the law/(ordered) according to the alphabet/in my opinion/to my liking (taste).'

Idiomatic expressions:

der Reihe nach/dem Alter nach/dem Aussehen nach
'each at his turn/according to age/according to appearance'
immer der Nase nach 'straight ahead'
einem nach dem Mund reden 'to say what is expected'

Seit

is only used in modifiers of time (3.422) (seit wann) 'since:'

Seit jenem Tage/seit einer Stunde/seit gestern/
seit hundert Jahren/seit Menschengedenken
'Since that day/since an hour ago/since yesterday/since a hundred years/since as long as man remembers'

Von

There are no separable verbs with the prefix von-; instead, weg-, ab- and los- are used. Many predicates, however, have a prepositional object introduced by von, e.g. abhängen von (3.3325). The contraction of von dem is vom. As a modifier, von has the function of

Place (woher?) 'from:'

It is used as "directional from" when the stationary modifier is introduced by an, auf or bei (when the stationary is introduced by in, the directional is aus) (3.421).

Er kommt von dem Bahnhof/von der Post/vom Feld.
'He comes from the station/from the post office/from the field.'

Frequently, a double preposition is used (von preceding the noun, aus following it) to indicate the point of departure:

Von London aus fährt er nach New York.
'From London he leaves for New York.'

This is transferred to a figurative meaning:

Von Haus aus ist er Jurist 'originally he was a lawyer, but he changed his profession'
Von Natur aus ist sie ängstlich 'It is her nature to be frightened.'
Von mir aus...'as far as I am concerned'

Time (von wann?) 'from:'

Von 9 bis 12/von Montag bis Freitag/von Ostern bis Pfingsten
'From 9 to 12/from Monday to Friday/from Easter to Pentecost'

The preposition von is not used alone in a temporal context; it is used only in von-bis connections or with an or ab to indicate the time of start:

Von morgen an/ab leben wir Diät./Von Anfang an war das falsch.
'Beginning tomorrow we'll diet./That was wrong from the beginning.'
Von da an/ab/von Sonntag an/ab
'From then on/beginning Sunday'

Von-auf is used only in idiomatic expressions:

Von Jugend auf/von klein auf ist er das gewöhnt.
'He is used to that from his youth/from when he was small.'
Von Grund auf muß das geändert werden.
'That must be changed radically.'

Mood is used primarily as a modifier of noun phrases (4.423):

Ein Mann von Welt/von gutem Aussehen/von Intelligenz
'A man of the world/of good looks/of intelligence'

Cause (warum/wovon/von wem?) 'by, of,' used to indicate the agent in the passive voice (3.18):

Er wurde von dem Direktor befragt.
'He was interviewed by the director.'

As indicator of the reason or cause 'from:'

Er ist müde von der Arbeit/nervös vom Warten.
'He is tired from the work/nervous from waiting.'

As modifier of noun phrases (4.422), von is used when the noun has no visible genitive, when the noun is in the plural and not specified by an adjective:

Die Plätze von Paris/das Schicksal von Millionen/eines von beiden
'The places of Paris/the fate of millions/one or the other'

Zu

is a very frequent preposition, used as a separable prefix of verbs (3.131) and as an obligatory prepositional object of many verbs (3.3325), and in a variety of modifiers:
Contraction: zu der > zur, zu dem > zum

Place (wohin?) 'to,' translocal directional toward (3.421) institutions, people:

Wir fahren zum Theater/zur Post/zu den Eltern.
'We drive to the theater/to the post office/to the parents.'

Zu is sometimes used as a postposition to indicate the direction:

der Heimat zu/dem Gebirge zu
'toward home/toward the mountains'

In earlier stages of German, zu functioned as in + dative does today to indicate stationary locality:

Goethe wurde zu Frankfurt geboren/der Dom zu Köln/Gasthof zur Post/zu Hause
'Goethe was born in Frankfurt/the Cologne Cathedral Inn to the Post Office/at home'

Time (wann?) 'at,' connected with Zeit, Stunde, Anfang and Mal:

zur Zeit (z.Zt.)/zur Stunde/zu Anfang/zum ersten Mal/zu Ostern/heutzutage/zu Mittag essen
'temporarily/at this hour/in the beginning/for the first time/nowadays/to eat lunch'

Mood (wie?):

zum Teil (z. T.)/zum Glück/zur Not/ zur Hälfte/zu Tausenden
'partially/fortunately/when necessary/by half/by thousands'

Purpose (zu welchem Zweck?) 'to/for:'

> zum Beispiel (z.B.)/Aufforderung zum Tanz
> 'for example/invitation to dance'
> Er ist zum Dichter geboren/Er gab die Hand zum Abschied.
> 'He (was) born to be a poet/He shook hands to say good bye.' (see section 3.425)

Idiomatic expressions:

> Der Weg zur Hölle ist mit guten Vorsätzen gepflastert.
> 'The way to hell is paved with good intentions.'
> Wer nicht kommt zur rechten Zeit, muß essen das, was übrigbleibt.
> 'He who does not come on time must eat what is left.'
> zur Welt kommen 'to be born'
> sich etwas zu Herzen nehmen 'to take something to heart'

There are four postpositions with dative:

> gemäß, zufolge 'according to/following' (4.154)
> entgegen 'toward/against'
> gegenüber 'opposite'

> Seinem Wunsch gemäß/zufolge brachten wir Bücher mit.
> 'Following his wish we brought books along.'
> Der Hund lief seinem Herrn entgegen.
> 'The dog ran toward his master.'
> Seinem Wunsch entgegen brachten wir Bücher mit.
> 'Against his wish we brought books along.'
> Sie wohnt dem Bahnhof gegenüber.
> 'She lives opposite the train station.'

The prepositions with the genitive (4.154) are increasingly being used with dative.

4.153 Prepositions with Dative or Accusative

The choice of case (accusative or dative) of the two-fold prepositions depends in general on the predicate. If the predicate indicates stationary rest, the preposition requires the dative case; if the predicate indicates a directional toward motion, the preposition requires the accusative case.[1]

There are, however, some seemingly illogical uses of the cases:

> Verbs of arrival are used with dative:
>
> ankommen/anlangen/eintreffen/einkehren in+dative
>
> Conversely, the accusative is used after
>
> münden/klopfen/eintreten/halten in/an+accusative:
>
> Der Rhein mündet in die Nordsee.
> 'The Rhine empties into the North Sea.'

---

[1]As mnemonic aid: 'rest and dative' are short words; 'motion and accusative' are long words. Or: Intralocal = dative; translocal = accusative.

Sie tritt in das Zimmer ein.
'She enters the room.'
Sie halten die Fäuste in die Höhe.
'They hold their fistsin the air.'

The prepositions with accusative or dative are:

an, auf, hinter, in, neben, über, unter, vor and zwischen

An

This preposition occurs in many separable verbs (3.131) and as an obligatory prepositional object of many predicates (3.3325). In prepositional modifiers (contracted an dem > am, an das > ans), it has the following functions:

Place (3.341) (wo or wohin?) 'at/near/by/in:'

an is related to neben in that it indicates a partial touching of a place:

Ich hänge das Bild an die Wand. Es hängt an der Wand.
'I hang the picture on the wall. It's hanging on the wall.'

In general, an indicates a place:

am Meer/an der Grenze/am Himmel/am Rand/am Haus
'at the ocean/at the border/in the sky/at the edge/by the house'
Wir fahren an das Meer/an die Grenze.
'We go to the ocean/to the border.'

Time (3.342) (wann?) 'at/in'

When indicating a time, an, in, vor are used with dative; the question wann corresponds to wo?
An is used with the days, times of day, and holidays:

am Sonntag/am Morgen/am Weihnachtstag/am 1. Mai
'on Sunday/in the morning/on Christmas Day/ on the first of May'

Idiomatic expressions:

Die Sonne bringt es an den Tag.
('It will come to light one day.')
Jemanden an der Nase herumführen.
'Make a fool of someone.'
Das ist an den Haaren herbeigezogen.
('That is far-fetched.')

Auf

Place (wo or wohin?) 'on:'

auf denotes a direct touch from above, whereas über implies a distance between the place and the object.

Er steigt auf das Dach. Die Katze sitzt auf dem Dach.
'He climbs onto the roof. The cat sits on the roof.'

Time (wann/wie lange?) 'for'

auf with dative indicates a length of time in the future:

Wir fahren auf/für vier Wochen nach England.
'We'll go to England for four weeks.'
Das Taxi ist auf sechs Uhr bestellt.
'The taxi is ordered for six o'clock.'
Er verschwand auf Nimmerwiedersehen/auf immer und ewig.
'He vanished forever.'

Mood (wie?) 'in/at:'

Auf diese Weise/auf gut Glück/auf keinen Fall/auf der Stelle/auf einmal/Liebe auf den ersten Blick.
'In this manner/to take pot luck/in no case/immediately/suddenly/love at first sight.'

Sequence:

Schlag auf Schlag/auf Regen folgt Sonnenschein
'blow for blow/after rain comes sunshine.'

Cause (warum/weshalb?) 'because of:'

Auf diese Nachricht hin/aufgrund seiner Begabung/daraufhin
'Because of this news/because of his talent/because of it (consequently)'

As a prefix of verbs, auf is always separable.

Idiomatic expressions:

auf der Stelle treten 'not to get ahead'
auf Sand gebaut sein 'to be built on quicksand'
auf die schiefe Bahn geraten 'to go astray, get ruined'
auf die lange Bank schieben 'to procrastinate'
jemanden auf den Arm nehmen 'to tease'
auf dem Trockenen sitzen 'to be broke'
nicht auf den Kopf/Mund gefallen sein 'to be intelligent/talkative'

Hinter

This preposition is the opposite of vor and functions only as modifier of place. As a prefix, of verbs, it is always inseparable. Often the place is stressed by her (3.411; 4.41).

Die Garage liegt hinter dem Haus. Ich lief hinter ihm her.
'The garage is behind the house. I ran after him.'

With her, hinter always requires the dative case; without her, hinter takes the dative with predicates indicating rest, and the accusative with predicates indicating motion.

Idiomatic expressions:

es ist nichts dahinter 'it is irrelevant/unimportant'
dahinter kommen 'to find out'
nicht ganz trocken hinter den Ohren sein 'to be immature'
es faustdick hinter den Ohren haben 'to be sneaky'
sich etwas hinter die Ohren schreiben 'to remember well'

In

As a separable prefix of verbs, in is ein-: einschreiben (3.131). This preposition is used in obligatory prepositional objects of many predicates, e.g. sich verlieben in A. In modifiers, in functions primarily in modifiers of Place:

Sie arbeitet in Hamburg/in Deutschland/in der Fabrik.
'She works in Hamburg/in Germany/in the factory.'
Sie fährt in die Stadt/in die Fabrik/ins Ausland.
'She goes into town/into the factory/abroad.'

Time (wann?) 'at/in:'

In a temporal context, in always takes the dative case.

In einer Minute/Stunde/im Monat Mai/in der Woche/im Jahre
'In a minute/hour/in the month of May/in the week/in the year'

Mood

Most expressions are idiomatic when used as mood modifiers:

in großer Eile/im Zickzack/alles in allem/im Durschnitt
'in a great hurry/in zigzag/all in all/on the average'
im wesentlichen/im einzelnen/insbesonders
'essentially/in detail/especially'

In is contracted with the der-determiner das: ins, and with dem: im.

Idiomatic expressions:

Wer sich in Gefahr begibt, kommt darin um.
'He who puts himself in danger, dies in it.'
sein Schäfchen ins Trockenen bringen
'to take one's own advantage') 'to feather one's nest'
jemandem in die Augen stechen 'to please'
jemandem einen Floh ins Ohr setzen 'to suggest an impossible idea'
sich in den Haaren liegen 'to have a fight'
jemanden ins Gebet nehmen 'to seriously talk to someone'
jemandem im Auge behalten 'to observe someone closely'
im Trüben fischen 'to do illegal business/be unsure'
Rosinen im Kopf haben 'to be conceited/have grand ideas'
ins Wasser fallen 'to be cancelled'
in den Tag hinein leben 'to live without concerns'
ein Schlag ins Wasser 'a failure'

Neben

is only used as a modifier of place, indicating things or persons side by side while an and bei denote indefinite closeness.

Er saß neben mir/er setzte sich neben mich.
'He sat next to me/he took a seat next to me.'

Neben competes with außer (4.152) in meaning 'besides:'

Neben seiner Arbeit schreibt er ein Buch.
'Besides his work he is writing a book.'

The idiomatic expression nebenbei gesagt means 'incidentally.'

Über

Like durch, um (4.151), and unter, the preposition über as a prefix of verbs is separable when the meaning is literal, and inseparable when the meaning is figurative: Er setzt den Gast über. 'He ferries the guest across,' versus Er übersetzt den Satz. 'He translates the sentence' (3.131).

The preposition über is also used in prepositional objects of many predicates: sich freuen/weinen/klagen über A. (3.3325).
With the der-determiner, über is contracted to übers<über das and, although less frequently, überm<über dem.
As a modifier of place, über corresponds to English 'above' when it denotes a position or motion above something without touching it:

1000 Meter über dem Meeresspiegel/Das Flugzeug kreist über der Stadt/Die Sonne geht über den Bergen auf.
'1000 meters above sea level/the plane circles above/ the sun rises over the mountains.'

The preposition also indicates a motion or situation above a surface with or without touching:

Das Boot glitt über das Wasser/Die Tränen liefen ihr über die Wangen.
'The boat glided over the water/The tears ran down her cheeks.'

Über can also correspond to English 'accross:'

Er sprang über den Zaun/ging über die Grenze/über Bord.
'He jumped across the fence/went over the border/overboard.'

As a modifier of time, über can be a preposition and a postposition:

As a preposition, über with accusative denotes a length of time:

Er bleibt über Nacht/wir fahren übers Wochenende weg.
'He stays overnight/we (will) leave for the weekend.'

As postposition also with accusative:

Es hat die Nacht über/den Sommer über geregnet.
'It rained all night/summer.'
Tagsüber arbeitet er. 'During the day he works.'

As a modifier of mood, über denotes a quantity in the sense of 'more than:'

Er ist über 70 Jahre alt/Es ist über 10 Jahre her.
'He is over 70./It (has been) more than 10 years.'

Idiomatic expressions:

über alle Berge sein 'to be far away/beyond reach'
den Stab über einem brechen 'to condemn someone'
etwas nicht übers Herz bringen 'not to have the heart to do'
Hals über Kopf 'head over heels'
über Leichen gehen 'to be reckless/inconsiderate'
sich über etwas graue Haare wachsen lassen 'to worry'

Unter

is the opposite of über or auf. As a prefix of verbs, it can be separable or inseparable. It functions as a modifier of place 'under/below:'

Es ist 10 Grad unter Null. Das Land steht unter Wasser.
'It is 10 degrees below zero. The land is flooded.'
Sie setzte sich unter die Lampe. Er saß unter uns.
'She seated herself under the lamp. He sat among us.'

Mood 'under/by/with'

Sie gestand unter Tränen. 'She confessed with tears.'
Er rettete sie unter Lebensgefahr/unter Einsatz seines eigenen Lebens/unter Aufbietung all seiner Kräfte.
'He saved her at the risk of his own life/jeopardizing his own life/with all his strength.'

Indicator for quantity 'under/less than'

Für Jugendliche unter 18 Jahren verboten.
'Forbidden for youths under 18.'

Idiomatic expressions:

Es gibt nichts Neues unter der Sonne. 'There is nothing new under the sun.'
sein Licht unter den Scheffel stellen 'to be too modest'
seine Tochter unter die Haube bringen 'to get one's daughter married off'
jemandem etwas unter die Nase reiben 'reproach someone'

Vor

As a prefix of verbs, vor is always separable. It introduces some prepositional objects, such as sich fürchten vor D. It can be contracted with the der-determiner: vors, vorm. As a modifier, vor has the following functions:

Place (wo/wohin?) 'in front of:'

vor is the opposite of hinter in local context:

Er geht vor das Haus/er steht vor dem Haus.
'He goes in front of the house/he stands in front of the house.'

Time (wann?) 'before:'

In temporal contexts, vor is the opposite of nach (4.152)

and it takes only the dative case.

Es war 5 vor 2/vor 10 Tagen/vor Christi Geburt (v.C.)
'It was 5 before 2 o'clock/ten days ago/before Christ (B.C.)

Cause (warum?) 'of/from:'

vor indicates the cause of involuntary reactions (as opposed to voluntary reactions with aus (3.424):

Sie war blaß vor Furcht/schrie vor Angst.
'She was pale with fear/screamed from fear.'

Idiomatic expressions:

jemanden vor den Kopf stoßen 'to shock/annoy someone'
ein Brett vor dem Kopf haben 'to be a blank'
etwas vor Augen haben/sich etwas vor die Augen halten 'to remember/to keep in mind'
den Wald vor lauter Bäumen nicht sehen 'to miss the forest for the trees'

Zwischen

This preposition cannot be a prefix. As a modifier, it is primarily of place, meaning 'between:'

Deutschland liegt zwischen Frankreich und Polen.
'Germany lies between France and Poland.'
Sie legte das Dokument zwischen die Bücher.
'She put the document between the books.'

As a modifier of time, zwischen denotes a length of time with its beginning and end used only with accusative.

Zwischen zwei und drei Uhr/zwischen Weihnachten und Neujahr
'between two and three o'clock/between Christmas and New Year's

Idiomatic expressions:

etwas zwischen den Zeilen lesen 'to read something between the lines'
zwischen zwei Stühlen sitzen 'to be undecided'
zwischen Tod und Leben schweben 'to be in critical condition'

4.154 Prepositions with Genitive

The prepositions with genitive are increasingly used with dative in colloquial speech. In earlier stages of German, many more prepositions were used with genitive (1.62). The most frequent genitive prepositions are:

(an)statt, trotz, während and wegen

Anstatt

There is no difference between anstatt and statt; colloquially, the shorter form is preferred.
Anstatt means 'instead:'

Statt eines Autos kauft er ein Motorrad.
'Instead of a car, he buys a motorcycle.'

Idiomatic expressions are:

an Eides statt 'under oath'
jemanden an Kindes Statt annehmen 'to adopt'

Trotz

is most often used in modifiers of contrast (3.426), and quite often with dative instead of the genitive:

Trotz des Regens gehen wir spazieren.
'In spite of the rain, we (are) going for a walk.'

Wegen

introduces modifiers of cause (weswegen/warum?) 'because of:'

Wegen des Regens gehen wir nicht spazieren.
'Because of the rain, we (are) not going for a walk.'

In earlier stages of German or in elevated use of the language, wegen is sometimes a postposition:

Technischer Schwierigkeiten wegen verschob man die Sitzung.
'Because of technical difficulties, the meeting was postponed.'

Während

is used in modifiers of time meaning 'during:'

Während der Vorlesung soll man nicht schlafen.
'During the lecture one should not sleep.'

Six additional prepositions with the genitive are used primarily in modifiers of place:

innerhalb 'within'	oberhalb 'above'
außerhalb 'outside'	unterhalb 'below'
jenseits 'beyond'	diesseits 'on this side of'

Innerhalb/außerhalb des Hauses ist es warm.
'Inside/outside the house it is warm.'
Oberhalb/unterhalb der Brücke ist ein Vogelnest.
'Above/below the bridge is a bird's nest.'
Diesseits/jenseits des Flusses verläuft die Grenze.
'On this/that side of the river is the border.'

Instead of innerhalb, the preposition binnen is used either with genitive or dative.

Innerhalb, binnen, and außerhalb can also be used in modifiers of time:

Innerhalb/außerhalb seiner Sprechstunden findet man ihn nie.
'During/outside of his office hours one can never find him.'

Unweit 'not far from' and längs 'along' are used very infrequently:

Unweit des Waldes gibt es ein Gasthaus.
'Not far from the woods is an inn.'
Längs des Sees stehen Bänke.
'Along the lake are benches.'

The following are used exclusively in bureaucratic and legal language:

kraft 'because of:' Kraft seines Amtes 'by authority of his office'
(ver)mittels 'by means of:' Mittels eines Nachschlüssels 'by means of a pass key.'
vermöge 'by virtue of:' Vermöge seines Amtes 'by virtue of his office'
zufolge 'according to:' Zufolge der Nachrichten 'according to the news.' Zufolge can also be a postposition with dative.
angesichts 'in view of:' Angesichts der Probleme 'in view of the problems'
betreffs/bezüglich/hinsichtlich 'concerning:' Betreffs Ihrer Anfrage 'concerning your request'
einschließlich 'including/ausschließlich 'excluding,' the noun has usually no genitive /-s/ and no determiner: Einschließlich/ausschließlich aller Kosten 'including/excluding all costs'
seitens 'on the part of:' Seitens der Polizei 'on the part of the police.'
zwecks 'with the purpose of,' the noun has no determiner: Zwecks besserer Zusammenarbeit 'with the purpose of better cooperation.'

4.16 Pronouns

Pronouns (<Latin pro+nomen 'for the name, noun') (s Pronomen, Fürwort) function to replace noun phrases, regardless of their length:

Ein Spaziergang in unserem neuen, inmitten der Stadt gelegenen Park ist erfrischend. — Er ist erfrischend.
'A walk in our new park located in the middle of town is refreshing.' — 'It is refreshing.'

Because of their different forms and functions, pronouns are grouped into the categories of personal pronouns (4.161), determiners as pronouns (4.163), interrogative pronouns (4.165), and prepositional pronouns (4.162).

4.161 Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns (s Personalpronomen, s persönliche Fürwort) distinguish three persons, each in singular and plural:

ich/wir the person(s) who talk(s), do(es), or act(s)
du/ihr the person(s) addressed familiarly
er, es sie/sie the person(s) or thing(s) discussed or acting
Sie the pronoun of formal address in singular and

plural. Because of its formal identity with the plural sie, Sie is classed with the former.

The personal pronouns are inflected as follows:

	SINGULAR					PLURAL			
N	ich	du	er	es	sie	wir	ihr	sie	Sie
A	mich	dich	ihn	es	sie	uns	euch	sie	Sie
D	mir	dir	ihm		ihr	uns	euch	ihnen	Ihnen
G	meiner	deiner	seiner		ihrer	unser	euer	ihrer	Ihrer

The personal pronouns are used in the following manner:

ich/wir are used as in English. The pronoun ich is only capitalized at the beginning of sentences.

du/ihr are the pronouns of the familiar address, employed with family members, children, animals and in prayer. The persons addressed are called by their first names:

Wohin gehst du, Lotte? Was macht ihr, Lotte und Willi?

In letters, the pronoun of address is always capitalized:

Liebe Petra! Ich danke Dir für Deinen lieben Brief, in dem Du ansagst, daß Du und Deine Schwester uns besuchen werdet. Wir freuen uns darauf, Euch zu sehen. Wann werdet Ihr ankommen?

The verbs duzen and siezen 'to address somebody familiarly or formally' are derived from pronouns.

er, es, sie/sie refer to persons and things.

Wolfgang ist hier. Er ist hier.
Das Mädchen ist klein. Es ist klein.
Frau Meier ist meine Lehrerin. Sie ist meine Lehrerin.
Herr und Frau Schmitt wohnen dort. Dort wohnen sie.

When a das-noun denotes a person, such as s Mädchen, s Fräulein, either es or the natural gender are used. When the name is mentioned, the natural gender must be employed:

Das Mädchen ist klein. Es heißt Ute. Sie ist niedlich.

When referring to noun phrases, the personal pronoun corresponds to the grammatical gender of the noun (4.131):

Mein Garten ist schön; ich liebe meinen Garten.
Er ist schön; ich liebe ihn.

Note that the forms of the personal pronoun er, es, sie/sie correspond exactly to the der-determiner (except the genitive: 4163) and the abbreviated chart in 4.131 supplies mnemonic aid for the pronouns also.
Since English personal pronouns replace nouns according to animate and inanimate, students must practice the replacement of German nouns by their personal pronouns corresponding in gender and case:

Der Koffer ist schwer. Ich trage den Koffer.
Er ist schwer. Ich trage ihn.
Die Lampe brennt hell. Sie brennt hell.

Sie — the pronoun of the formal address is always capitalized and identical in form with plural sie 'they.' Sie is used in singular and plural (1.53):

Herr Neumann, wann kommen Sie vorbei?
Herr und Frau Neumann, wir freuen uns, Sie zu sehen.

The cases of the personal pronouns are used in the same manner as the cases of nouns (3.332ff):

Nominative is the subject of clauses; the finite verb shows congruence with its subject (3.32):

Ich schreib-e, du sing-st und er lies-t.

Accusative is the case of the accusative object (3.3321):

Der Vater fragt mich/dich/ihn/sie/es/uns/euch/sie.

Dative is the case that denotes the dative object (3.3322):

Fritz hilft mir/dir/ihm/ihr/uns/euch/ihnen/Ihnen.

After prepositions, the personal pronouns are in the case required by the preposition (3.3325; 4.15ff):

Wir verlassen uns auf ihn; wir kommen mit ihm.

The genitive has two functions:

With predicates whose valence requires a genitive, a genitive object (3.3324), the pronoun meiner, deiner, seiner, etc. is employed to replace a noun phrase. The pronoun is not inflected further:

Wir sind uns meiner/deiner/seiner/nicht sicher.
'We are not sure of me, you, him.'

However, since predicates with genitive objects are increasingly replaced by other constructions, it is rarely used and should only be introduced in advanced classes.

The genitive personal pronoun mein-, dein-, sein-, etc. replaces a noun phrase whose determiner is the possessive (ein-) determiner (4.132). In that instance, the determiner becomes a pronoun and has the inflectional morphemes of the der-determiner (4.131; 4.163):

Das ist mein Wagen. Das ist meiner.
'This is my car. This is mine.'
Dort ist euer Auto. Dort ist eures.
'There is your car. There is yours.'

Since the possessive determiners (ein-determiners) differ in their inflection only in the nominative of der-nouns and nominative and accusative of das-nouns, the inflection of the possessive pronoun and the possessive determiner are identical in most cases. Only through the position in front of a noun can the determiner be distinguished from the pronoun:

DETERMINER	PRONOUN
Hilfst du deiner Mutter?	Ich helfe meiner.
Hat er ihren Füller?	Nein, sie hat seinen.

Since the possessive pronoun is used relatively rarely, it should not be introduced together with the personal pronouns nor with the possessive determiners, but rather at a later point during German instruction.

The possessive pronoun should only be called by that name if it truly replaces a noun phrase: mein-, dein-, sein-, ihr-, unser-, euer-, ihr- and Ihr- should be strictly distinguished from the pronoun as 'possessive determiners' when they determine a noun phrase, just like ein- and kein-.

In poetic and idiomatic expressions, the possessive pronoun occasionally occurs uninflected:

Vergiß mein nicht!	'Do not forget me!'
Ich harre dein.	'I wait for you.'
s Vergißmeinnicht	'forget-me-not' (flower)

The pronoun es is used in a functional and impersonal manner in several syntactic constructions:

Es is the grammatical subject of the so-alled impersonal verbs (3.3) and of certain fixed expressions:

Es regnet, es blitzt, es ist kalt.
'It is raining, lightning; it is cold.'
Es geht ihm gut. Es kommt darauf an. Es gefällt ihm hier.
'He is fine.' 'It depends.' 'He likes it here.'

Es can be a filler in clauses without a subject. If another constituent of the clause is moved into the first slot (5.22ff), the es is deleted. This happens quite frequently with verbs of emotion:

Es friert mich. Mich friert. ('I am freezing.')

This es as filler and grammatical subject also occurs in passive clauses whose underlying active clause does not have an accusative object (3.18ff):

Active: Man lachte und tanzte im Saal.
('There was laughing and dancing in the hall.')
Passive: Es wurde im Saal gelacht und getanzt.
('There was laughing and dancing in the hall.')

When another constituent is moved into the first slot, es is again deleted, resulting in a clause without a subject:

Im Saal wurde gelacht und getanzt.

Some reflexive predicates (3.33221) can be used impersonally; the reflexive pronoun is not used, but rather a personal object:

Es freut ihn. Er freut sich.
('It pleases him. He is pleased.')

Es can be the antecedent of a daß- or interrogative clause which replaces the subject or an object of the main clause (5.332):

Es ist sicher, daß er kommt. Ich weiß es, wo er wohnt.
'It is certain that he'll come. I know (it) where he lives.'

For further discussion of the use or pronouns, see section 4.25.

4.1611 Reflexive Pronoun

When the subject and object of a sentence denote the same person or thing, the object is expressed by a reflexive pronoun (s Reflexivpronomen, bezügliche Fürwort). Whereas the English system of reflexives is complete ('myself, yourself, himself, etc.), the German reflexive pronoun is identical to the personal pronoun in the accusative or dative case in the ich-, wir-, du- and ihr-forms (4.161):

Ich ärgere mich. ('I am angry.')	Ich widerspreche mir. 'I contradict myself.'
Du freust dich. ('You are happy.')	Du antwortest dir. 'You answer yourself.'
Wir freuen uns. ('We are happy.')	Wir widersprechen uns. 'We contradict ourselves.'
Ihr wundert euch. ('You want to know.')	Ihr antwortet euch. 'You answer yourselves.'

Only the reflexive pronoun of er, es, sie/sie differs from the personal pronoun; it is sich in the singular and the plural:

Er/es/sie ärgert sich. Sie/sie ärgern sich.
('He/she/it is angry.' 'They/you are angry.')

When referring to the form of formal address, Sie, the reflexive is not capitalized.

Some verbs require by their valence a reflexive, such as sich freuen, sich erinnern, sich besinnen, etc. (3.33ff). Other transitive verbs can have the reflexive pronoun when referring to the subject as an accusative object:

Der Frisör rasiert den Kunden. Er rasiert ihn.
'The barber shaves the client. He shaves him.'
Der Frisör rasiert sich. 'The barber shaves himself.'

In most instances, the reflexive pronoun is in the accusative case. However, when another accusative object follows, the reflexive is in the dative:

Du wäschst dich. Du wäschst dir die Hände.
('You wash yourself. You wash your(self the) hands.')

In German, the reflexive is used more frequently than in English to denote the action directed to the object. English would express the above as 'you wash your hands.'
The reflexive pronoun is also used in alternative expressions of the passive voice (3.183):

Der Wunsch läßt sich erfüllen. Der Wunsch erfüllt sich.
('The wish can be granted.') ('The wish can be granted.')

When tne reflexive is stressed, selbst or selber is used after the reflexive (4.41):

Wir helfen uns selbst. 'We help ourselves.'

When showing a relationship of reciprocity, gegenseitig 'mutually' is used after the reflexive, or einander 'one another' instead of the reflexive:

Wir helfen uns gegenseitig.
'We (mutually) help each other.'
Wir helfen einander.
'We help one another/each other.'

For further discussion of reflexive predicate, see section 3.33221.

4.162 Prepositional Pronouns

To replace prepositional phrases by a pronoun, the preposition must be a part of the pronominal expression. Prepositional phrases, regardless of whether they are obligatory objects (3.33ff) or modifiers (3.413), are replaced by pronouns which show a distinction between persons and things.
If the noun within the prepositional phrase denotes a person, the replacement consists of a preposition + a personal pronoun (4.161):

Wir warten auf den Freund. Wir warten auf ihn.
'We wait for the friend. We wait for him.'

If the noun within the prepositional phrase denotes a thing, the preposition is prefixed by da-. When the preposition begins with a vowel, an -r- is included: damit, darauf.

Wir warten auf den Brief. Wir warten darauf.
'We wait for the letter. We wait for it.'

A few prepositions, however, cannot be connected with da-: ohne (with accusative), seit (with dative), and the prepositions with genitive (4.154). Instead of the da-compound, they are connected with the der-determiner (4.131):

ohne das 'without it' — trotzdem[1] 'in spite of it'
seitdem 'since then' — deswegen 'because of it'
stattdessen 'instead of it' — währenddessen 'during it'

Sie gehen trotz des Regens aus. Sie gehen trotzdem aus.
'They go out in spite of the rain. They go out in spite of it.'
Sie gehen wegen des Sonnenscheins aus. Sie gehen deswegen aus.
'They go out because of the sunshine. They go out because of it.'

The da-compounds can occasionally refer to groups of people:

Hans und Inge sitzen auf der Bank. Ich setze mich daneben.
'Hans and Inge sit on a bench. (I sit down next to them).'

Da-compounds can also function as antecedents of subordinate clauses (5.3ff) which replace prepositional phrases:

Ich freue mich darüber, daß du die Prüfung bestanden hast.
'I am glad about it that you have passed the exam.'

When the prepositional phrase is a modifier of place, the preposition is frequently combined with her 'to' and hin 'from' (seen from the view point of the speaker) (3.421):

Er kommt aus dem Haus. Er kommt heraus.
'He comes out of the house. He comes out of it (to me).'
Er geht in das Haus. Er geht hinein.
'He goes into the house. He goes into it (away from me).'

For further discussion of the use of prepositional pronouns in clauses, see section 5.232.

4.163 Determiners as Pronouns

Noun phrases can be represented by their determiners when the noun is understood through the context. Such determiners as pronouns have a demonstrative character and are therefore often called 'demonstrative pronouns.' In English, determiners can only rarely be pronouns; nouns must be replaced in most instances by 'one:' 'I know that man. I know that one.'

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[1] trotz is frequently combined with dative instead of genitive.

All der- and ein-determiners (4.131-4.132) can function as pronouns; the inflection of der and ein differ slightly when used as pronouns:

der, das, die as pronouns:

When used as pronouns without a noun, the determiners der, das, die pl die are always stressed in spoken German. They have the same form as the determiner, except that the dative plural and all genitives have the additional morpheme -en [1]:

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	der	das	die	
NOM	der	das	die	die
ACC	den			
DAT	dem		der	denen
GEN	dessen		deren	

This determiner as pronoun is used most frequently in place of a personal pronoun (4.161) when the demonstrative function is desired:

Kennst du Herrn Müller? Ja, den kenne ich gut.
'Do you know Mr. Müller? (Yes, that one I know well.)'

Occasionally, the determiners as pronouns can be modified by da or dort or by a prepositional phrase with the function of a modifier of place (3.421):

Welcher Wagen gefällt dir am besten? Der da ist schön, aber der dort am Fenster gefällt mir am besten.
'Which car do you like best? The one there is nice, but the one there by the window I like best.'

The form das can refer to persons and things regardless of their gender when replacing a predicate nominative (3.1316):

Wer ist das? Das ist Herr Meier.
'Who is that? That is Mr. Meier.'

Like es (4.161), das can be an antecedent of a subordinate clause:

Das freut mich, daß ihr kommt.
('I'm glad you're coming.')

The genitive forms of the determiner as pronoun function primarily to clarify possession:

Sie geht mit ihrer Freundin und deren Bruder ins Kino.
'She goes with her friend and her (the friend's) brother to the movies.'

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[1] dessen is written with double s to maintain the short vowel quantity.

In that instance, the genitive pronoun functions simultaneously as an uninflected determiner.

The combination derselbe is inflected like der-determiners in the first part, and as an adjective in the second. It means 'the identical one' as opposed to der gleiche (written in two words) meaning 'a similar one:'

In welchem Hotel wohnt ihr? Wir wohnen in demselben wie letztes Jahr.
'In what hotel are you staying? We are staying in the same one as last year.'
Dieses Hotel ist das gleiche wie letztes Jahr; es wurde inzwischen renoviert.
'This hotel is the same as last year; it was remodeled in the meantime.'

Dieser, dieses, diese as pronouns:

This determiner has an even stronger demonstrative character than der used as pronoun, 'this one.' Its inflection is the same as a pronoun and a deterimer:

Kennst du dieses Buch? Nein, dieses kenne ich nicht.
'Do you know this book? (No, this one I don't know.')

The form dieses can be shortened to dies and can function like das above:

Wer ist dies? Dies freut mich, daß ihr kommt.

Dies und das 'this and that' is used idiomatically to refer to unimportant things.

Jener, jenes, jene as pronouns:

These determiners are used as pronouns to indicate persons and things which are further removed in time and place than those denoted by dies-:

Dieses Auto hier gehört mir, aber jenes gehört ihm.
'This car here belongs to me, but that one belongs to him.'

Dieses und jenes or der und jener also mean 'this and that.'

Jeder, jedes, jede as pronouns:

This determiner, 'everyone,' can only refer to persons in the singular and is replaced by alle in the plural (4.143):

Jeder muß arbeiten. ('Everybody has to work.')
Alle müssen arbeiten. 'All must work.'

Occasionally, jed- can be emphasized by ein or einzeln- (4.143):

Jeder einzelne muß arbeiten. 'Every single person must work.'
Ein jeder muß arbeiten. 'Everyone must work.'

Mancher, manches, manche as pronoun:

This determiner as a pronoun, refers to indefinite persons or things. It does not form a genitive:

Manche arbeiten zu viel. ('Some work too much.')
Er hat mich manches gefragt ('He asked me many a thing.')

Solcher, solches, solche as pronoun:

This determiner refers to an indefinite quality or intensity when used as a pronoun:

Hast du reife Tomaten? Nein, solche habe ich nicht.
'Do you have ripe tomatoes? (No, I don't have that kind.')

Often solch is used uninflected or as so, followed by ein and a pronoun:

Was für ein schöner Garten! Ich habe so(lch) einen noch nie gesehen.
'What a lovely garden! I have never seen such a one.'

All ein-determiners (4.132) can be used as pronouns and have the inflectional morphemes of the der-determiners (4.131):

	SINGULAR			PLURAL
	der	das	die	
NOM	(k)einer	(k)eines	keine	keine
ACC	(k)einen	(k)eines	keine	keine
DAT	(k)einem	(k)einem	(k)einer	keinen
GEN	(k)eines	(k)eines	(k)einer	(k)einer

Einer, eines, eine as pronoun:

These determiners as pronouns have no plural and no genitive. Eines is often shortened to eins:

Wieviel Pfund Äpfel möchten Sie? Ich möchte ein(e)s.
'How many pounds of apples do you want? I'd like one (pound).'

When referring to a plural, welche, meaning 'some,' is used:

Hier ist ein Stuhl. Hier ist einer.
'Here is a chair. Here is one.'
Hier sind Stühle. Hier sind welche.
'Here are chairs. Here are some.'

Keiner, keines, keine as pronoun:

The negation of ein 'no one, not one, none' is used in the same manner as ein and as a plural:

Hast du Äpfel? Nein, ich habe keine.
'Do you have apples? No, I have none.'

When making a negative noun phrase positive for contrast, welcher, welche, welches is used as a pronoun refer-

ring to an indefinte quantity:

> Hast du keine Äpfel? Doch, ich habe welche.
> 'Don't you have any apples? Yes, I do have some.'

Possessive determiners as pronouns:

When they function as pronouns, the possessive determiners (4.132) are also inflected like der-determiners:

> Darf ich dein Buch borgen? Ich habe mein(e)s vergessen.
> 'May I borrow your book? I forgot mine.'

English has a full set of these pronouns ('mine,' 'yours,' 'his,' 'hers,' etc); in German, the pronoun differs from the determiners only in the nominative of der-nouns and nominative and accusative of das-nouns.

For further discussion of possessives as personal pronouns, see section 4.161.

These possessives may be used as nouns in the plural preceded by a der-determiner to refer to a family:

> Er kommt mit den Seinen, ich mit den Meinen.
> 'He comes with his family, I with mine.'

Sometimes, the pronoun is expanded by the adjective formant -ig and means the same as above:

> Er kommt mit den Seinigen, ich mit den Meinigen.

For further discussion of der-determiner-pronoun as relative conjunction, see section 5.332.

4.164 Indefinite Pronouns

Pronouns (s Indefinitepronomen, unbestimmte Fürwort) referring to indefinite persons are:

Man 'one'

This pronoun is always in the nominative singular and can only function as the subject of sentences:

> Man arbeitet hier viel. 'One works alot here.'

The accusative and dative are taken from einer (4.163):

> Er ist nett, denn er grüßt einen und hilft einem.
> 'He is nice because he greets you and helps you.'

Jederman 'everyone'

has no inflection except a genitive jedermanns:

> Jedermann arbeitet hier viel. 'Everyone works a lot here.'
> Das ist nicht jedermanns Geschmack.
> 'That is not everyone's taste.'

Jemand 'somebody, soneone'/negative niemand 'nobody' can be used with or without inflection:

NOM	jemand	niemand
ACC	jemand(en)	niemand(en)
DAT	jemand(em)	niemand(em)

GEN jemand(es) niemand(es)

Niemand hilft ihm. Hast du jemand(en) gefragt?
'Nobody helps him. Have you asked anyone?'

When jemand/niemand precedes a nominalized adjective (4.145), the adjective may be inflected with the determining inflection as if it specified a der- or a das-noun:

Er kennt niemand Berühmtes.
Er kennt niemand Berühmten.
'He doesn't known anybody famous.'

Irgendwer/irgendeiner/irgendwelcher 'somebody'

The prefix irgend- stresses the indefinite character of these pronouns. Irgendwer is inflected like the interrogative pronoun wer (4.165); its genitive, however, is not used. Irgendeiner is used like einer (4.163); irgendwelcher is inflected like welcher and may be used in the singular and plural:

Irgendwer kommt. Hast du irgendwen gesehen?
'Somebody is coming. Have you seen somebody?'
An der Tür ist irgendeiner. 'Somebody is at the door.'
Kennst du irgendwelche, die hier wohnen?
('Do you know anybody who lives here?')

To indefinite things refer:

Etwas 'something'/negative nichts 'nothing'

The pronoun etwas can be shortened to was and should not be confused with the interrogative pronoun was 'what.' Neither etwas nor nichts have any inflection.

Hast du etwas gehört? Nein, ich habe nichts gehört.
'Did you hear something? No, I didn't hear anything.'

Most frequently, the two pronouns are followed by a nominalized adjective with determining das-inflection:

Gibt es (et)was Neues? Ich habe nichts Gutes zu lesen.
'Is there anything new? I have nothing good to read.'

Sometimes etwas can be stressed by irgend which is written as a separate word:

Hast du irgend (et)was zu tun?
'Do you have anything (at all) to do?'

Etwas in front of a noun is an adverb (4.41) and means 'a bit:' Möchtest du etwas Milch? 'Do you want a bit of milk?'
The indefinite character of etwas can be stressed by irgend-:

Hast du irgend (et)was gesehen?
'Did you see anything at all?'

Indefinite circumstances of time, place, mood can be expressed by:

irgend- plus wo/wohin/woher 'somewhere'

Er geht irgendwohin. 'He goes somewhere.'

irgend- plus wann 'sometime'

Kannst du mich irgendwann anrufen?
'Can you call me sometime?'

irgend- plus wie 'somehow'

Irgendwie muß ich das schaffen.
'I have to do it somehow.'

The negation is nirgend-: nirgendwo 'nowhere'

4.165 Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns (s Interrogativpronomen, Fragewort) function to elicit individual constituents of sentences and clauses (5.ff).

Interrogative pronouns which elicit the subject and non-prepositional objects (3.33ff) are wer and was:

	PERSONS	THINGS
NOM	wer 'who'	was 'what'
ACC	wen 'whom'	was 'what'
DAT	wem 'to whom'	----------
GEN	wessen 'whose'	wessen 'whose'

Der Vater gibt dem Sohn den Brief der Mutter.
Wer gibt dem Sohn den Brief der Mutter? — Der Vater.
Wem gibt der Vater den Brief der Mutter? — Dem Sohn.
Was gibt der Vater dem Sohn? — Den Brief der Mutter.

Wessen Brief gibt der Vater dem Sohn? — Den Brief der Mutter.

The predicate after wer is in the er-form (3.141). Only when the question elicits a predicate nominative in the plural, is the predicate in the 3rd person plural:

Wer sind diese Leute? 'Who are these people?'

The genitive of wer, wessen, can stand alone when it elicits a genitive object:

Ich bin mir seiner Hilfe sicher. Wessen bin ich mir sicher?
'I'm sure of his help.' 'Of what am I sure?'

When the genitive modifier (4.422) is elicited, the noun it modifies follows the interrogative:

Der Brief der Mutter. Wessen Brief?
'The letter of the mother. Whose letter?'

Was to elicit things is also followed by the predicate in the er-form, unless the predicate nominative is in the plural:

Was steht dort? Dort stehen 10 Stühle.
'What is there? Ten chairs are there.'
Was sind diese Leute? Sie sind Ärzte.
'What do these people do? They are physicians.'

Prepositional phrases as objects and as some modifiers (3.4ff) are elicited by:

PERSONS
PREPOSITION + INTERROGATIVE
mit wem?

THINGS
wo + PREPOSITION
womit?

Wir arbeiten mit unseren Freunden. Mit wem arbeiten wir?
'We work with our friends. With whom do we work?'
Wir arbeiten mit gutem Werkzeug. Womit arbeiten wir?
'We work with good tools. With what do we work?'

Prepositions beginning with a vowel are preceded by an included -r- when combined with wo: worin?

All prepositions with the genitive and ohne (with accusative) are not combined with wo- but are used as ohne was? trotz was? wegen was?

English has the same combination, although used somewhat differently in 'whereby,' 'wherein,' etc.

Modifiers as adverbs and prepositional phrases are elicited by interrogatives depending on their meaning:

Modifiers of Place (3.421):

Intralocal: wo? 'where?'

Er arbeitet in Hamburg. Wo arbeitet er?
'He works in Hamburg. Where does he work?'

Translocal/directional to: wohin? 'where to?'

Er fährt nach Hamburg. Wohin fährt er?
'He goes to Hamburg. Where is he going?'

Directional from: woher? 'where from?'

Er kommt aus Hamburg. Woher kommt er?
'He comes from Hamburg. Where does he come from?'

Modifiers of Time (3.422):

point-of-time: wann? 'when,' um wieviel Uhr? 'at what time,' an welchem Tag? 'on what day?' etc.

Er kommt heute um neun Uhr. Wann/um wieviel Uhr kommt er?
'He comes today at 9 o'clock. When/at what time does he come?'

stretch of time: wie lange? 'for how long?' seit wann? 'since when?' bis wann? 'until when?'

Er arbeitet hier drei Monate. Wie lange arbeitet er hier?
'He has been working here for three months. For how long has he been working here?'

habitual time: wie oft? 'how often?'

Er arbeitet jeden Montag. Wie oft arbeitet er?
'He works every Monday. How often does he work?'

Modifiers of Mood (3.423):

manner, kind, quality: wie? 'how?'

Er arbeitet sehr schwer. Wie arbeitet er?
'He works very hard. How does he work?'

measure, quantity: wieviel(e)? 'how much/how many?'

Er hat hundert Mark. Wieviel Mark hat er?
'He has a hundred marks. How many marks does he have?'

Modifiers of Cause (3.424):

cause, reason: warum/weshalb/weswegen? 'why?'

Er arbeitet wegen seiner Familie. Warum arbetitet er?
'He works because of his family. Why does he work?'

instrument, accompaniment: wo+preposition 'with what?'

Er arbeitet mit gutem Werkzeug. Womit arbeitet er?
'He works with good tools. With what does he work?'

Modifiers of Purpose (3.425):

purpose: zu welchem Zweck/mit welcher Absicht? 'for what purpose?'

Er arbeitet zum Geldverdienen. Zu welchem Zweck arbeitet er?
'He works to earn money. For what purpose does he work?'

Modifiers of Contrast (3.426):

contrast: trotz was? 'in spite of what?'

Er arbeitet trotz seiner Müdigkeit. Trotz was arbeitet er?
'He works in spite of his tiredness. In spite of what does he work?'

Modifiers of Condition (3.427):

condition: unter welcher Bedingung? 'under what condition?'

Er arbeitet nicht ohne Bezahlung. Unter welcher Bedingung arbeitet er nicht?
'He does not work without being paid. Under what condition does he not work?'

A verb phrase as the predicate of clauses can be elicited by was tut (the subject) or was macht (the subject)? 'what does (the subject) do?'

Er arbeitet. Was macht er? Was tut er?
'He works. What is he doing?'

Specifying adjectives within noun phrases can also be elicited:

When a noun phrase is introduced with the der-determiner (4.131), the question welch- plus noun 'which' is used:

Er hat die beste Arbeit. Welche Arbeit hat er?
'He has the best job. Which job does he have?'

When the adjective is preceded by the ein-determiner (4.132), the adjective is elicited by was für ein- plus noun 'what kind of?'

Er hat eine gute Arbeit. Was für eine Arbeit hat er?
'He has a good job. What kind of a job does he have?'

All interrogative pronouns can function as conjunctions introducing subordinate clauses (see section 5.333).

The interrogative pronouns are helpful to isolate and elicit constituents of clauses and their syntactical relationships. They should therefore be introduced and practiced together with the constituents of clauses (subjects, objects, modifiers). Only the wo-compounds need further practice, which may be done in conjunction with the da-compounds (see section 4.162).

4.17 Coordination of Noun Phrases

Two or more noun phrases can be connected by coordinating conjunctions (5.231). Such conjunctions are:

und 'and'
entweder...oder 'either...or'
sowohl...als auch 'as well as'
weder...noch 'neither...nor'
nicht nur...sondern auch 'not only...but also'

When the subject has several coordinated noun phrases, congruence with the predicate must be observed (3.32).

Hans und Inge gehen in die Schule.
'Hans and Inge go to school.'
Könntest du oder deine Schwester heute vorbeikommen?
'Could you or your sister come by today?'
Sowohl der Lehrer als auch die Schüler sind hier.
'The teacher as well as the pupils are here.'
Weder Geld noch gute Worte konnten ihn dazu bringen.
'Neither money nor persuasion could get him (to do it).'
Nicht nur Studenten sondern auch Lehrer lernen dauernd.
'Not only students but also teachers learn constantly.'

When three noun phrases are connected, no comma precedes the last one:

Hier wohnen Vater, Mutter und Kind.
'Here reside father, mother, and child.'

Pronouns (4.16ff) can be coordinated in the same manner.

Adjectives which specify noun phrases also may be coordinated:

Er liest ein nicht nur gutes sondern auch interessantes Buch.
'He reads not only a good book, but also an interesting one.'

For further discussion of coordination of predicate, see section 3.19; for coordination of clauses, see section 5.23.

4.2 Use and Function of Forms in the Noun Phrase

4.21 Use of Nouns

The noun and all parts of speech which can function as nouns (4.12) constitute the core of noun phrases. Since the inherent characteristic of nouns, the gender cannot be expressed by the form of modern German nouns alone, the gender of the noun is indicated by a functional marker, the determiner (4.13ff). In addition, the determiner marks the functional category of number, in which the noun also participates in its morphological ability to form a plural (4.123). The functional and syntactic category of case is indicated by the determiner and required by the valence of the predicate (3.33), or by the other functional marker, the preposition.

Determiner and noun can be specified by adjectives and participles with adjectival function (4.14ff). Noun phrases can also be modified by adverbs or by other noun phrases as modifiers, see section 4.4ff.

Noun phrases can be replaced by pronouns, see section 4.16ff.

Within clauses, noun phrases function as the subject or the object(s) of the predicate, see section 4.3ff.

4.211 Nominalization

In Modern German, there is a growing tendency to express actions and states of being not by a verb phrase alone, but by a relatively colorless verb plus a noun phrase:

helfen - Hilfe leisten 'to help-to give help' verbinden - in Verbindung kommen 'to contact-to get in touch'

This so-called nominal style is especially common in journalistic and bureaucratic writing.

Such verb+noun constructions (often called in German s Funktionsverbgefüge can have the following form:

verb + accusative object: kritisieren - Kritik üben 'to criticize'

verb + prepositional phrase: abschließen - zum Abschluß bringen 'to conclude'

The verbs used in verb + accusative constructions are transitive (3.3321), such as machen, haben, unternehmen, vornehmen setzen, üben, etc. 'make,' 'have,' 'undertake,' 'do,' 'put,' and 'exercise:'

sich sorgen um - sich Sorgen machen um A 'to worry about'

Er sorgt sich um seine Kinder. Er macht sich um seine Kinder Sorgen.
'He worries (himself) about his children.'

untersuchen - eine Untersuchung durchführen/unternehmen 'to investigate'
Er untersuchte das Problem. Er unternahm eine Untersuchung des Problems.
'He investigated the problem. He undertook an investigation of the problem.'

Verbs used in verb + prepositional phrase constructions can be transitive/intransitive, such as kommen, stehen, sein, geraten, etc. 'come,' 'stand,' 'be' and 'hit(upon):'

diskutieren - zur Diskussion kommen 'to discuss'
Wir diskutieren das Thema. Das Thema kommt zur Diskussion.
'We discuss the subject. The subject is broached.' sion).'

Some of these nominal constructions have no equivalent in English.
The prepositions used in verb+prepositional phrase constructions are either determined by the valence of the verbs (3.3ff), or they are assigned semantically by the meaning of the noun phrase like those of modifiers (3.413).
Nouns used in these constructions are formed from verbs by derivation:

ausdrücken - zum Ausdruck bringen 'to express'
klären - zur Klärung bringen 'to clarify'

In some instances, the verb + noun constructions can indicate more subtle nuances than the verb alone can. The verb verbinden 'to contact/connect' cannot indicate whether the contact was caused or initiated (causative), or if the contact is the result of a change (perfective), or if the contact is continuing (durative). However, by using different verbs with the same noun, these nuances can be expressed:

Er hat uns in Verbindung gebracht/gesetzt. (causative)
'He has put us into contact.'
Wir kommen mit ihnen in Verbindung. (perfective)
'We come into contact with them.'
Wir sind/stehen/bleiben mit ihnen in Verbindung. (durative)
'We are/(stand)/remain in contact with them.'

Many such verb + noun constructions have become fixed expressions and should be learned as vocabulary items, such as:

fragen - eine Frage richten an A/ jemandem eine Frage stellen 'to ask, pose (someone) a question'
antworten - jemandem eine Antwort geben auf A 'to answer, give an answer'
beschließen - einen Beschluß fassen 'to decide, make a decision'

These constructions should be explained and practiced in the later stages of beginning German, since they permit flexibility of expression and encourage practice of word formation and syntactic relationships.

4.22 Use of Adjectives

Within the noun phrase, adjectives function to specify, explain, or describe a noun. Adjectives (and participles) are always inflected within the noun phrase.

The two-fold adjective inflection, developed by the Germanic languges (1.34), although extant in Old English, has been lost in modern English. In German, the determining inflection of adjectives (1.41) shows a variety of endings identical to the der-determiner, while the reduced inflection (4.142), used after inflected determiners, is less differentiated.

All adjectives can be nominalized when referring to 'man,' 'woman,' or 'thing' (4.145). They are inflected as adjectives. Some of these nominalized adjectives, such as r/e Bekannte, Gesandte, Fremde and Alte have become stable as nominalizations, and for a few of them, even a die-noun can be formed: e Beamtin and e Gesandtin.

Throughout the history of German, nominalized adjectives stood on the borderline between adjective and noun. Some of these adjectives have lost their original adjective inflection and are nouns, such as r Herr<OHG hēriro 'to 'the older (one),' or r Fürst<OHG furisto 'the first (one).' More recent nouns from nominalized adjectives which also participate in the 'weak' nominal inflection (4.124) are r Junge and r Mensch. Original present participles which became nouns by way of nominalized adjectives are r Freund, Feind, etc.

On a borderline between adjective and determiner are such numerical expressions as einige, mehrere, viele, etc., after which the adjective inflection fluctuates (4.143).

For further discussion of adjectives used to compare qualities, see section 4.144 ; adjectives as predicate adjectives (3.315ff); and adjectives as modifying adverbs (3.411; 4.41).

4.23 Use of Functional Markers

Determiners (see section 4.13ff) and prepositions are markers of functional relationships between constituents of noun phrases (4.11) on the one hand, and between constituents of clauses (5.22) on the other.

4.231 Use of Determiners

Determiners are classified as der-determiners and ein-determiners for morphological reasons (see section 4.13).

The der-determiners indicate the case, gender, and the number of nouns they determine. In contrast, ein-

determiners do not show gender in the nominative of der- and in the nominative and accusative of das-nouns.

In most instances, each noun requires a determiner, and the use of determiners differs very little in English and German.

No determiner is used

with nouns of general meaning:

Arbeit schafft Befriedigung.
'Work gives satisfaction.'

with nouns denoting materials, elements, foods:

Das Kleid ist aus Seide. Der Ring ist aus Gold. Frisches Brot schmeckt köstlich.
'The dress is (made) of silk. The ring is (made) of gold. Fresh bread tastes delicious.'

with nouns in the plural when the singular has the ein-determiner ein, ein, eine 'a/one:'

(Wir haben ein Haus.) Wir haben Häuser.
'We have houses.'

With names and professions, not specified by an adjective:

Hans ist Lehrer. Spanien liegt in Europa.
'Hans is a teacher. Spain is in Europe.'

The der-determiner der, das, die is used

with nouns that are known in the context:

Der Lehrer begrüßt die Schüler.
'The teacher welcomes the students.'

with names, professions, specified by an adjective

Der junge Hans ist der beste Lehrer.
'(The) young Hans is the best teacher.'
Das schöne Spanien liegt in Europa.
'(The) beautiful Spain is in Europe.'

A few names of countries always have the der-determiner:

der: r Irak, Iran, Sudan, Balkan
die: e Schweiz, Bretagne, Türkei, Tschechoslowakei, Mongolei
plural: die Niederlande, die Vereinigten Staaten, die USA

For the use of prepositions with these countries, see section 3.421.

The ein-determiner ein, ein, eine (indefinite article) is used

when denoting an indefinite noun:

Ein Lehrer sollte seine Schüler begrüßen.
'A teacher should welcome his students.'

in generalizations:

> Ein Apfel jeden Tag ist gesund.
> 'An apple a day is healthy.'

Determiners can also function as pronouns, replacing a noun phrase (4.163):

> Der freundliche Mann gab ihm Geld. Der gab ihm Geld.
> 'The friendly man gave him money. That one gave him money.'

4.232 Use of Prepositions

Throughout the history of the German language, there is a tendency to replace objects by prepositional phrases. The Indo-European languages (see section 1.2) had several more cases than modern German, and the reflexes of ablative, instrumental, and locative cases are either merged with the dative or are expressed by a prepositional phrase. Because of the lack of overt case markings in English, the need for prepositions as functional markers is even greater.

For this reason, many predicates require through their valence a prepositional object rather than an accusative, dative, or genitive object (3.33ff): denken an A: Er denkt an den Freund. 'He thinks of his friend.'

Many predicates can be used with a prepositional object or a dative object, such as schreiben DA/schreiben A an A:

> Ich schreibe dem Freund einen Brief/Ich schreibe einen Brief an den Freund. 'I wrote a letter to the friend.'

Prepositional phrases are very frequently used in modifiers, and the choice of the preposition indicates a differentiation in meaning: in das Haus, um das Haus, auf das Haus 'into the house, around the house, onto the house.' Similarly, the choice of accusative or dative relates the prepositional phrase to the action of the verb as either rest or motion: 'in das Haus, in dem Haus, 'into the house, within the house' (see section 4.15ff).

Prepositions are also used in word formation as prefixes of verbs and nouns derived from them (see section 3.131). Some separable verbs (3.123) have a close relationship to their prepositional object or modifier, in that the prefix is identical with the preposition of the prepositional phrase. Such verbs are, most frequently, those with an-, auf-, aus-, ein- (=in):

> Er ist auf den fahrenden Zug aufgesprungen.
> 'He jumped onto the rolling train.'
> Sie hat sich Geld in den Mantel eingenäht.
> 'She sewed money into her coat.'

When the verb has the prefix ab-, the prepositional phrase is introduced by von:

> Er läßt sich von dem Entschluß nicht abbringen.
> 'He will not be (dissuaded) from his decision.'

4.24 Use of Functional Categories

The functional categories of nouns are gender (4.122), number (4.123), and case (4.124).

Gender is inherent in every noun and is indicated by the determiner or an adjective with determining inflection (4.141). Personal pronouns (4.161) er, es, sie also reflect gender in their form.

Also inherent in most nouns is the capacity to form a plural marked by plural morphemes (4.123).

Case is a syntactic function indicating the relationships between constituents of clauses (4.124; 5.22).

4.241 Use of Number

The singular is used when one entity is discussed; the plural is used when several entities are involved. Nouns in the plural stand after cardinal numbers (4.171).

Some nouns never occur in the plural:

Nominalized infinitives: s Denken, Schreiben, Fühlen, etc.
'thinking writing feeling'

Nominalized adjectives not referring to persons:

s Grün(e), Schöne, Feine, etc.
'the green, beautiful, fine'

Collective terms: e Polizei, s Publikum, Getreide, etc.
'police, audience, grain'

Abstract nouns: r Haß, Zorn; e Freude, Wärem, Furcht;
'hate, anger, joy, warmth, fear;'
s Glück, etc.
'happiness'

Materials: r Wein, Pelz; s Eisen, Gold; e Seide, Wolle etc.
'wine, fur, iron, gold, silk, wool'

Occasionally a plural is formed to indicate different kinds: die edelsten Hölzer, or by adding -arten or -sorten:
'the noblest woods'
die edelsten Holzarten/Holzsorten.
'the noblest kinds of wood.'

Nouns indicating measurements or amounts in quantity when followed by a noun phrase: 2 Pfund Mehl, 3 Glas Bier, 10 Gramm Zucker, etc. '2 pounds of flour, 3 glasses of beer, 10 grams of sugar.'

Note that in English, these quantities are in the plural and the following noun is connected with 'of:' '2 pounds of flour.'

Some nouns are used only in the plural:

Geschwister, Eltern, Kosten, Möbel, Leute, etc.
'siblings, parents, costs, furniture, people'

After these nouns as subjects, the predicate is in the plural: Meine Geschwister sind erwachsen. 'My siblings are adults.'

However, Weihnachten, Ostern, Pfingsten, 'Christmas, Easter, Pentecost,' although plural morphologically, are used as singular nouns when subjects: Weihnachten ist das schönste Fest des Jahres, 'Christmas is the most beautiful holiday of the year,' but: Fröhliche Weihnachten! 'Merry Christmas!'

Compound nouns formed with -mann have the plural -leute when referring to members of professions: r Kaufmann-Kaufleute, 'businessman,' r Schutzmann-Schutzleute, 'police officers,' etc. However, with Ehemann, 'husband,' Staatsmann, 'diplomat,' Schneemann, 'snowman,' the plural is -männer: Ehemänner.

Some German homonyms are distinguished by the plurals each with a different meaning:

SINGULAR	PLURAL 1	PLURAL 2
e Bank 'bank/bench'	Bank-en 'banks'	Bänk-e 'benches'
r Block 'rock/note pad'	Block-s 'rocks'	Blöck-e 'note pads'
s Gesicht 'face/vision'	Gesicht-er 'faces'	Gesicht-e 'visions'
r Mann 'man/vassal'	Männer 'men'	Mann-en 'vassals'
e Mutter 'mother/nut'	Mütter 'mothers'	Mutter-n 'screw nuts'
s Schild 'sign/shield'	Schild-er 'signs'	Schild-e 'shields'
r Strauß 'bouquet/ostrich'	Sträuß-e 'bouquets'	Strauß-e 'ostriches'
s Wort 'vocable/word'	Wört-er ('unconnected) vocables'	Wort-e ('connected) words'

All constituents of the noun phrase (4.11) participate in the formation of the plural (except prepositions and adverbs):

dieser junge Mann - diese jungen Männer

er - sie

mit diesem sehr jungen Mann - mit diesen sehr jungen Männern 'men'
'(with) this (very) young man

4.242 Use of Case

Not all four cases of noun phrases (nominative, accusative, dative and genitive) are overtly marked in all instances (4.124).

The oblique cases are determined by the valence of the predicate in clauses (3.33ff) or by prepositions (4.15ff). The subject in the nominative case is connected to the finite verb in the predicate through congruence (3.32).

4.2421 Use of Nominative

The nominative is the case of the subject, which influences the inflectional morphemes of the finite verb in the predicate through congruence (3.32).

Also in the nominative case are predicate nominatives, which complement certain verbs (3.316).

4.2422 Use of Accusative

The accusative case is required by the valence of transitive verbs, which also can form a passive voice (3.18ff). The accusative case is also required by prepositions with the accusative (4.151) and the prepositions with dative or accusative when the verb indicates motion (4.152).

Only three verbs have a double accusative: nennen, heißen and kosten (3.3321). Otherwise, no sentence can contain more than one accusative object. However, there can be multiple prepositional phrases in the accusative.

Nouns in the accusative case can also be modifiers (3.421).

4.2423 Use of Dative

The dative case functions as a dative object, as required by the valence of some predicates (3.3322). In most instances, the dative object denotes a person. The dative case is also required by some prepositions (4.152, 4.153).

4.2424 Use of Genitive

While the genitive case was used with great frequency in Middle High German (1.52), its use in modern German is decreasing both as a genitive object and after prepositions. Only a few predicates require a genitive object, but in the spoken language, a different construction is preferred:

> Ich erinnere mich des Freundes - ich erinnere mich an den Freund.
> 'I remember the friend.'

Similarly, the prepositions with genitive, (an)statt, trotz, während and wegen, are increasingly used with the dative case:

> Trotz des Regens - trotz dem Regen
> 'in spite of the rain'

The only constant use of the genitive case is as a genitive modifier of noun phrases indicating possession (4.422).

4.25 Use of Pronouns

A pronoun replaces a noun phrase whose identity is known through the context in order to avoid repetition of that noun phrase.

Personal Pronouns:

> The personal pronouns (4.161) er, es, sie, pl. sie have a close formal relationship to the der-determiner, and they function as replacements of noun phrases according to gender, number, and case.

> The personal pronouns ich, pl. wir represent the speaker.

The pronouns *du*, pl. *ihr* are used for familiar address of one or several people. Sometimes, *du* is deleted, and the inflectional ending (3.141) /-st/ represents it in colloquial speech: *hast recht*.

The pronoun of the formal address, *Sie*, is used to address one or several people formally; it is of relatively recent origin in the history of the German language (see section 1.53).

Reflexive Pronouns:

The reflexive pronouns (see section 4.1611) refer back to the subject of a clause. Only the pronouns *er*, *es*, *sie*, pl. *sie* have the reflexive pronoun *sich*; in all other persons, the reflexive function is assumed by the accusative or dative case of the personal pronoun. Many verbs require a reflexive as their obligatory complement (3.33221). In some instances, the reflexive has a function of reciprocity, such as *sich unterhalten*, *sich verabreden*.

Possessive Pronouns/Determiners:

Preceding a noun, the possessive determiners *mein-*, *dein-*, *sein-*, *ihr-*, *unser-*, *euer-*, *ihr-* and *Ihr-* function alike and are inflected like *ein*-determiners (4.132), referring to another noun phrase which indicates the possessor.

Dort ist Richard. Ich bin mit seiner Schwester befreundet.

Possessives can also function as pronouns replacing a whole noun phrase; in that case they have the inflection of the *der*-determiner (4.161; 4.163):

Ich fahre Richards Auto. Ich fahre sein Auto. Ich fahre seines.
'I drive Richard's car. I drive his car. I drive his.'

Determiners as Pronouns:

All determiners can function as pronouns and replace noun phrases (4.163). When *der*-determiners are used as pronouns, they have the characteristics of demonstratives *dies-* and *jen-* (4.163). The *ein*-determiners are inflected as *der*-determiners. Relative pronoun-conjunctions have the same form as *der*-determiners, when used as pronouns (5.331).

Prepositional Pronouns:

Prepositional phrases which function as objects or modifiers (3.3325; 3.4ff) can be replaced by prepositional pronouns. Here, the functional categories of gender, number and case are not relevant; rather, the categories animate vs. inanimate are used as in English. When a prepositional phrase refers to a person, the preposition + personal pronoun is used, and the personal pronoun is in the case determined by the preposition for the pronoun; if the prepositional phrase contains a noun denoting a thing, *da*+preposition is used. A few

prepositions cannot be connected with da-: ohne das, deswegen, etc. Such da-compounds can also function as antecedents of subordinate clauses (see sections 5.332). and 5.334).

Interrogative Pronouns:

Interrogative clauses (4.165) elicit nominal constituents of clauses or parts of constituents (5.22ff): subject, objects, modifiers, or adjectives within such noun phrases. The pronoun wer is inflected only for case; welch- is inflected for gender, number and case. All interrogative pronouns can also function as subordinating conjunctions (5.333). The interrogatives wer, was, wo, woher and wohin can also function as subordinating conjunctions in relative clauses (see section 5.331).

4.3 The Noun Phrase as a Syntactical Unit

Noun phrases function in clauses and sentences (5.ff) as subjects, objects (accusative, dative, genitive objects, prepositional objects) and modifiers.

4.31 Subject

The subject of a sentence is the originator of actions or of a state of being. Subjects are always in the nominative case. The subject is tied to the predicate by congruence (3.32).

Subjects can be elicited by the interrogative pronoun wer? 'who?' for persons, and was? 'what?' for things. In questions, the interrogative pronoun functions as the subject:

Peter ist nicht hier. Wer ist nicht hier?
'Peter is not here. Who is not here?'

All parts of speech which can be nouns can also be subjects (4.12), as can some subordinate clauses (5.31).

4.311 Predicate Nominative

The verbs sein, werden, bleiben and heißen 'to be,' 'to become,' 'to remain,' and 'to be called' are completed by a predicate nominative (3.316) instead of an object:

Sie ist eine gute Lehrerin. 'She is a good teacher.'

The predicate nominative can be exchanged with the subject:

Eine gute Lehrerin ist sie. 'She's a good teacher.'

The predicate nominative is the obligatory complement of these verbs which cannot take objects.

Predicate nominatives are also elicited by wer or was.

4.32 Objects

Objects are complements of the predicate and they are obligatory when required by the valence of the predicate (3.33ff), or facultative when not required by the valence.

4.321 Accusative Object

Most predicates require an accusative object. Verbs with accusative objects are called 'transitive' verbs, and dictionaries list them as such, indicating at the same time that such verbs can form a passive voice (3.18ff).

All parts of speech which can be subjects can also be accusative objects (4.12). The accusative object is elicited by the interrogative pronoun wen? 'whom?' for persons, and was? 'what?' for things:

> Wir fragen den Lehrer. Wen fragen wir?
> 'We ask the teacher. Whom do we ask?'

Only the verbs heißen, nennen 'to call somebody (a name)' and kosten 'to cost' may have two accusative objects (3.3321).

4.322 Dative Object

A few predicates require through their valence a dative object (3.3322) which, in most instances, denotes a person. Therefore, not all parts of speech which can be nouns, can be a dative object. Dative objects are elicited by wem? '(to)whom?':

> Wir danken dem Lehrer. Wem danken wir?
> 'We thank the teacher. Whom do we thank?'

4.323 Genitive Object

Only very few predicates require a genitive object. In modern German, such genitives are often replaced by different constructions:

> Er ist sich der Schuld bewußt.
> 'He is aware of the guilt.'
> Er ist sich bewußt, daß er schuldig ist.
> 'He is aware that he is guilty.'

The genitive object is elicited by wessen? 'of what?':

> Wessen ist er sich bewußt? 'Of what is he aware?'

4.324 Prepositional Object

Many predicates require a prepositional object through their valence. Such objects are elicited by preposition + interrogative pronoun wer in the case required by the preposition for person, or by wo+preposition:

Er bedankt sich bei seinem Vater für das Geld.
'He thanks (his father) for the money.'
Bei wem bedankt er sich für das Geld?
('Whom does he thank for the money?')
Wofür bedankt er sich bei seinem Vater?
'For what does he thank his father?'

For further discussion of replacement of objects by pronouns, see section 4.161-4.162; position of objects in clauses, 5.22ff.

4.33 Noun Phrases as Modifiers

Noun phrases which are not obligatory complements of predicates required by their valence are modifiers and are therefore facultative constituents of clauses. They are classified according to their meaning into modifiers of place (3.421), time (3.422), mood (3.423), etc. Modifiers are elicited by interrogative pronouns depending on their meaning (4.165).

Noun phrases as modifiers can be either in the accusative or genitive case.

The accusative modifiers are those of a measure of time or distance:

Er geht jeden Tag in die Schule. (3.422)
'He goes to school every day.'
Die Straße ist einen Kilometer lang. (3.423)
'The street is one kilometer long.'

Modifiers in the genitive case are of time (3.422):

Des Morgens geht er in die Schule.
'(In the morning) he goes to school.'

4.331 Prepositional Phrases as Modifiers

Besides adverbs (3.411), prepositional phrases are the most frequent modifiers. The choice of the preposition depends on semantic considerations (4.15ff):

Er geht um 8 Uhr aus dem Haus, steigt in sein Auto und fährt durch die Stadt zu seinem Büro.
'He leaves (his house) at 8 o'clock, climbs into his car and drives through town to his office.'

4.34 Valence of the Noun Phrase

Just as predicates (verbs and predicate adjectives) can have certain obligatory and facultative complements required by their valence (3.3ff), so can nouns. The complements of nouns are the same as the prepositional objects of the verbs or adjectives from which the nouns are derived:

strafen für A	e Strafe für A	'punish(ment) for'
denken an A	r Gedanke an A	'think/thought of'
sich freuen über A	e Freude über A	'glad(ness) about'

Such prepositional phrases stand immediately after the

noun phrase which requires it and can be elicited by preposition + interrogative pronoun wer in the case required by the preposition for persons, or by wo+preposition for things.

> Er ist dem Freund für das Geld dankbar.
> Er zeigt dem Freund seine Dankbarkeit für das Geld.
> Wofür zeigt er dem Freund seine Dankbarkeit?
> 'He is grateful to the friend for the money.'
> 'He shows the friend his gratitude for the money.'
> 'For what does he show the friend his gratitude?'

4.4 Modification of the Noun Phrase

Noun phrases can be modified for emphasis, explanation, or possession, just as verb phrases can be modified to indicate circumstances (3.4ff).

Modifiers of noun phrases may be adverbs (3.411; 4.41) or other noun phrases (4.42ff).

4.41 Adverbs Modifying Noun Phrases

A whole noun phrase or prepositional phrase can be modified by certain adverbs. These adverbs usually stand directly before (and rarely after) the noun phrase:

> Eben diese Frage wollte er stellen.
> Diese Frage eben wollte er stellen.
> 'Just this question he wanted to ask.'

Emphatic adverbs:

> gerade, eben, ausgerechnet, ja 'just'
> überhaupt 'at all'
> Gerade/eben/ausgerechnet am Sonntag muß es regnen!
> 'It would have to rain on Sunday!'
> Das ist ja ein Jammer! 'That is (really) a shame!'
> Hat er überhaupt Geld? 'Does he have (any) money at all?'

Restrictive adverbs:

> nur 'only,' erst 'only,' noch 'still'
> Er hat nur zehn Mark. 'He has only 10 marks (no more than that)'
> Er hat erst zehn Mark. 'He has only 10 marks (but expects to get more.)'
> Er hat noch 10 Mark. 'He still has 10 marks (he had more earlier).'

Modifier adverbs often follow the noun phrase:

> Time: jetzt 'now,' heute 'today,' etc.
> Sein Anruf heute/jetzt hat mich überrascht.
> 'His call today/now surprised me.'
>
> Place: da, dort 'there,' oben 'above,' unten 'below,' hier 'here' etc.

Das Buch hier/dort/da ist ausgezeichnet.
'The book here/there is excellent.'

For further discussion of modification of adjectives in the noun phrase, see section 4.146.

4.42 Noun Phrases Modifying Noun Phrases

A noun phrase can be modified by another noun phrase, which is either in the same case as the head noun phrase (apposition, 4.421), in the genitive to indicate possession (4.422), or a prepositional phrase with the same function as modifiers of predicates (3.4ff).

4.421 Apposition

Appositions (<Latin appositio 'posited to') (e Apposition, e Beifügung) are noun phrases which explain or describe the head noun phrase. They are always in the same case as the head noun phrase:

Friedrich der Erste. Karl der Große.
'Fredrick the First. Charlemagne
Die Untertanen liebten Karl den Großen.
'The people loved Charlemagne

Some appositions are added as explanations and divided from the head noun phrase by commas:

Ich habe mit Herrn Meier, dem Direktor der Firma, gesprochen.
'I talked to Mr. Meier, the director of the firm.'

Sometimes, the apposition is connected with the head noun phrase by als 'as:'

Ich habe mit Herrn Meier als dem Direktor der Firma gesprochen.
'I talked to Mr. Meier as the director of the firm.'

Appositions can also occur after pronouns:

Du Dummkopf! Er als Lehrer müßte das wissen.
'You dummy!' 'He, as a teacher, should know that.'

Since appositions belong to the noun phrase which they modify, both noun phrases are one and the same constituent of clauses. They are elicited together by the interrogative pronouns wer?/was?:

Frau Müller, meine Lehrerin, ist nett. Wer ist nett?

Appositions with als can be elicited by als was:

Frau Müller als meine Lehrerin ist hilfsbereit.
'Mrs. Müller, as my teacher, is ready to help.'
Als was ist Frau Müller hilfsbereit?
'As who (what) is Mrs. Müller ready to help?'

4.422 Genitive Modifier

Noun phrases can be modified by another noun phrase in the genitive to indicate possession or to give an explanation:

> Peters Auto. Inges Buch. Herrn Müllers neues Haus.
> 'Peter's car.' 'Inge's book.' 'Mr. Müllers new house.'

In German, no apostrophe is used to indicate such a possessive genitive modifier; /-s/ is added to names referring to a person in the singular. If the head noun is in the plural, or if the head noun cannot form a visible genitive, the possession is achieved by means of a prepositional phrase introduced by von:

> Das Haus von Herrn und Frau Müller. Die Straßen von Paris.
> 'The house of Mr. and Mrs. Müller.' 'The streets of Paris.'

If the possessor is expressed by a noun phrase which is not a name, that noun phrase is in the genitive case and follows the possession:

> Das Buch des/eines/meines/jedes Schülers.
> 'The book of the/one/my/each pupil.'

It must be pointed out that the genitive determiners in English are 'of the/my;' otherwise, the so-called Saxon genitive results, as in poetry and older German where the possessor occurred before the possession: Des Schülers Buch 'the pupil's book.'

Names of towns or countries can occur either before or after the possession:

> Die Geschichte Deutschlands. Deutschlands Geschichte.
> 'The history of Germany.' 'Germany's history.'

After pronouns (4.16ff), numbers (4.17ff), and adjectives in the comparative (4.144), the genitive modifier indicates a partitive relationship:

> Jeder/einer/manche/einige der Schüler...
> 'Each/one/some/several of the pupils...'
> Drei der Reisenden... Der Ältere/Älteste der Familie...
> 'Three of the travelers...' 'The older/oldest one in the family...'

When the genitive has no determiner (after names and /-s/), the adjective in the genitive modifier takes the determining inflection (4.141):

> Peters neues Auto...
> 'Peter's new car...'

The genitive modifier is elicited by wessen+noun phrase:

> Peters neues Auto...Wessen neues Auto?
> 'Peter's new car...Whose new car?'

Within clauses, the head noun phrase and its genitive modifier are one constituent:

Peters neues Auto ist sehr teuer. Was ist sehr teuer?
'Peter's new car is very expensive. What is very expensive?'

The pronoun for the genitive modifier is the possessive determiner (4.132):

Das Auto des Lehrers - sein Auto
'The car of the teacher - his car'

The pronoun of head noun + genitive modifier is the possessive pronoun (4.163):

Sie fährt das Auto des Lehrers. Sie fährt seines.
'She drives the teacher's car. She drives his.'

4.423 Prepositional Modifiers

Noun phrases can be modified by any prepositional modifier (3.42ff), except modifiers of comparison (3.428) and emphasis (3.429). Usually such prepositional modifiers occur directly after the head noun and form with the head noun one constituent of clauses.

Place: Die Reise durch Deutschland/in die Schweiz/von Amerika...
'The trip through Germany/to Switzerland/from America...'

Time: Die Arbeit am Sonntag/um 5 Uhr/vor dem Frühstück...
'The work on Sunday/at five o'clock/before breakfast...'

Mood: Ein Brief mit Fehlern/ohne Absender...
'A letter with mistakes/without a return address...'

Cause: Die Zerstörung durch Feuer/von Dieben/mit Gewalt...
'The destruction due to/by fire, by thieves/through violence...'

Purpose: Der Ausflug zum Studium/zur Erholung...
'The trip for study/for recreation...'

Contrast: Eine Arbeit trotz Krankheit...
'Work in spite of illness...'

Condition: Abfahrt ohne Tränen.
'Departure without tears...'

Unklike the modifiers of the verb phrase (3.4ff) prepositional modifiers of the noun phrase are not free, but are tied to their head noun. The whole constituent of clauses can be elicited:

Die Reise in die Schweiz war wunderschön.
'The trip to Switzerland was wonderful.'
Was war wunderschön?
'What was wonderful?'

To elicit the prepositional modifier, the appropriate interrogative pronouns of the modifiers (4.165) must be

used, and the head noun becomes the subject:

Wohin war die Reise wunderschön?
'The trip to where was beautiful?'

4.43 Negation of the Noun Phrase

A whole noun phrase or prepositional phrase can be negated by the negative ein-determiner (4.132):

Er hat kein Geld. 'He has no money.'

Such a negated noun phrase can be emphasized by adverbs as modifiers (4.41) such as gar or überhaupt ('not at all'):

Er hat überhaupt/gar kein Geld. 'He has no money at all.'

When two noun phrases are coordinated (4.17), both can be negated by weder...noch 'neither...nor:'

Er hat weder einen Film noch ein Theaterstück gesehen.
'He has seen neither a movie nor a play.'

When only one of two coordinated noun phrases is negated, kein...sondern 'not...but' is used:

Er hat keinen Film, sondern ein Theaterstück gesehen.
'He saw no movie but a play.'

In addition to negating a whole noun phrase or prepositional phrase, it is also possible to negate only the determiner or the adjective within the noun phrase.

The negation of a determiner is primarily for emphasis and nicht is used:

Nicht einen/diesen/meinen Brief hat er bekommen, sondern...
'He received not one/that/my letter, but...'

Although most adjectives can be negated lexically by either the prefix un- (freundlich-unfreundlich) or by antonyms (gesund-krank), they can also be negated within the noun phrase by nicht:

Seine nicht erfreulichen Nachrichten...
'His unpleasant news...'

Similarly, adverbs modifying adjectives within the noun phrase can be negated:

Seine nicht besonders erfreulichen Nachrichten.
'His not especially pleasant news.'

In summary, then, the noun phrase can be viewed as a series of slots which may or may not be filled:

NOUN PHRASE							
ADVERB	DET.	ADV.	ADJ.	NOUN	MODIFIERS		
					GENITIVE	APPOSITION	PREP. MOD.
Gerade 'Just	das the	ganz very	neue new	Kleid dress	des Mädchens of the girl,	ein Abend-kleid an evening dress	aus Paris. from Paris.'

Underlying these constituents of the noun phrase are, as was seen with extended adjectives (4.146), clauses, and the principle of economy in languages is obvious here. The example above has as its nucleus das Kleid, the basic noun phrase. Underlying the specifying adjective and its modifier is Das Kleid ist ganz neu, and the genitive modifier or a possessive determiner is derived from Das Kleid gehört dem Mädchen>Das Kleid des Mädchens or sein Kleid. The apposition and the prepositional modifier are the clauses Das Kleid ist ein Abendkleid and Das Kleid kommt aus Paris.

These constituents of extended noun phrases can be taught piece by piece, beginning with the nucleus of noun and determiner and its replacement by pronouns, followed sucessively by specification and modification. At the same time, the underlying clauses can be practiced, so that the noun phrase and the verb phrase are not always discussed as separate entities, but as interrelated functional structures showing the versatility and dynamic character of language.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. SENTENCES AND CLAUSES

5.1 Sentences

Sentences (< sententia 'way of thinking') (r Satz) are larger syntactical units in which verb phrases (3.ff) and noun phrases (4.ff) are combined according to language-inherent patterns, called syntax (<Greek syntaxis 'ordering together') (e Syntax, e Satzlehre).

Up to now, the term 'sentence' was used loosely to mean any longer utterance containing at least a subject and a predicate. However, a sentence should be defined more precisely as consisting of at least two clauses, of which one is a main clause (5.2ff) and the other a second main clause or a subordinate clause (5.3ff).

The clauses which are constituents of sentences are defined by the position of the finite verb (see sections 5.221; 5.32).

If a sentence consists of more than two clauses, it is complex sentence (5.4ff).

5.11 Constituents of Sentences

For pedagogical purposes, sentences can be viewed most practically as consisting of syntactical frames in which the constituents are arranged in a certain order.

The minimal constituents of sentences are two clauses. The minimal constituents of clauses are a subject (3.331) and a predicate (3.31). Depending on the valence of the predicate (3.3ff), the predicate can be complemented by one or more objects (3.33ff). Further constituents of clauses can be modifiers of the predicate (3.4ff).

SENTENCE								
MAIN CLAUSE					SUBORDINATE CLAUSE			
SUBJ.	PRED.	OBJ.	MOD.	OBJ.	CONJUN.	SUBJ.	OBJ.	PRED.
Er The	gibt gives	ihr her	gern gladly	Geld, money	weil because	er he	ihr trusts	vertraut. her.'

In addition to the possible constituents above, each subordinate clause contains a subordinating conjunction (5.32ff).

Although it is pedagogically practical to teach syntax in a rather static fashion, i.e. analyzing sentences and clauses in a linear manner, it should be kept in mind and must be mentioned in advanced classes that deviations from norms are frequent and provide stylistic effects which will be encountered in literature.

5.2 Main Clauses

5.21 Types of Main Clauses

Main clauses, also called 'independent clauses' (r unabhängige Satz, Hauptsatz), are clauses in which the finite verb (f.v.) (3.311) stands in the first slot (type 1) or in the second slot (type 2) within a frame:

MAIN CLAUSE				
	SLOT 1	SLOT 2	INNER SLOTS	TERMINAL SLOT
Type 1	f.v.	subj	objects/modifiers	rest of predicate
	Hat 'Has	er he	es ihm jetzt... (it him now)	gegeben? given?'
Type 2	subj	f.v.	objects/modifiers	rest of predicate
	Er 'He	hat has	es ihm jetzt... (it him now)	gegeben. given.'

Type 1 (f.v.-1) is used:

(1) in questions not introduced by an interrogative pronoun (alternative question) (5.211):

Wird er es ihm geben?
'Will he give it to him?'

(2) in imperatives (3.165; 3.226):

Gib es ihm! Gebt es ihm! Geben Sie es ihm!
'Give it to him!'

(3) in conditions when the conjunction wenn is deleted; that deletion transforms the subordinate clause into a main clause (3.2242):

Gäbe er es ihm,...
('If he were to give it to him...')

(4) in unreal wishes when the conjunction wenn is deleted as above in (3) (3.2242):

Würde er es ihm doch nur geben!
('If he would only give it to him!')

(5) in sentences when the subordinate clause precedes the main clause:

(Wenn er es hätte,) gäbe er es ihm.
('If he had it, he would give it to him.')

Type 2 (f.v.-2) is used:

(1) in statements (5.211):

> Er gibt es ihm heute.
> 'He gives it to him today.'

(2) in questions introduced by an interrogative (4.165):

> Wann gibt er es ihm?
> 'When will he give it to him?'

Sometimes, the main clause of type 2 is referred to as 'clause with normal word order,' and of type 1 'clause with inverted word order.' However, normal word order is easily associated with the usual English word order in which the subject precedes the predicate. In German, the subject is not always in the first position (5.222).

5.211 Communicative Function

Main clauses function in various communicative modes. Communication presupposes a speaker (or writer) and a listener (or reader).

By their form and communicative function, the following modes can be distinguished:

(1) Statement (Declarative Clause) (r Aussagesatz):
A statement can describe a process, an action or a state of being. Statement clauses are main clauses of type 2, and they can be expanded by subordinate clauses (5.33 ff):

> Gestern hat es hier stark geschneit.
> 'Yesterday it snowed hard here.'

Such statements do not demand a response by the listener.

(2) Question (r Fragesatz):

Questions are directed by the speaker to the listener, and they demand a response. There are two types of questions:

(2a) Alternative Question (yes-or-no question) (e Entscheidungsfrage):

Such questions demand a decision from the listener as to whether the answer is positive or negative. Such questions are main clauses of type 1:

> Hat es gestern geschneit?
> 'Did it snow yesterday?'

The answer is introduced affirmatively by ja, negatively by nein, and the answer is a main clause of type 2, in which the particles do not count. The negative answer is negated internally also (5.2242):

> Ja, es hat gestern geschneit.
> 'Yes, it snowed yesterday.'

Nein, es hat gestern nicht geschneit.
'No, it did not snow yesterday.'

When the question is negated, a positive answer is introduced by doch instead of ja:

Hat es gestern nicht geschneit?
Doch, es hat gestern geschneit.
'Yes, it did snow yesterday.'

Since English does not have a particle comparable to doch as a positive answer to a negative question, such answers must be practiced.

(2b) Word question (Informative Question) (e Frage): Word questions are introduced by a question word, an interrogative pronoun (4.165), and they are main clauses of type 2:

Wann hat es geschneit?
'When did it snow?'

The response by the listener has to supplement the information in the answer which is a statement and a main clause of type 2:

Gestern hat es geschneit.
Es hat gestern geschneit.
'It snowed yesterday.'

(3) Imperative (r Befehlssatz/r Aufforderungssatz):

In imperatives, the speaker gives a command to the listener, and he expects an action to occur, but not necessarily a verbal response. Imperatives are main clauses of type 1, unless they are introduced by bitte:

Bring mir die Zeitung bitte!
Bitte bring mir die Zeitung!
'Please bring me the paper.'

(4) Exclamation (r Ausruf):

Exclamations are spontaneous statements which do not require a response. They are usually main clauses of type 2, and they are frequently abbreviated (5.412):

Da seid ihr (ja wieder)!
'There you are (again)!'

Similar to exclamations are unreal wishes (3.2252), which can either be introduced by wenn and be a subordinate clause (5.3346) or occur without wenn and have the form of a main clause of type 1:

Wenn er doch jetzt käme!
Käme er doch jetzt!
'If only he would come now!'

Exclamations can also be subordinate clauses with the finite verb in the terminal slot (5.32) and they are introduced by welch-, was für ein- or wie:

Welch ein herrlicher Tag (das doch war)!
Was für ein herrlicher Tag (das doch war)!
'What a beautiful day (that was)!'
Wie schön (es hier ist)! 'How beautiful (it is here)!'

5.22 Position of Constituents in Main Clauses

English word order is relatively strict and inflexible due to the lack of morphological markings. In comparison, German word order is much more flexible:

'The dog bites the man. *The man bites the dog.'
Der Hund beißt den Mann. Den Mann beißt der Hund.'

In English, the subject must precede the predicate and cannot be replaced by the object, or a different meaning results. In German, because of case markers (4.124), an object can precede a predicate.

Because of the difference of word order in the two languages, German word order must be explained clearly and practiced extensively.

5.221 Position of the Predicate

The predicate consists of a finite verb and, depending on tense, mood, voice or type of the verb (modal or separable verb), verbal complements. Some verbs can also be complemented by adjectives or predicate nominatives (3.317).

In German main clauses, the finite verb is divided from its complements, and this division creates a syntactic tension. The finite verb as one part of the predicate, on the one hand, and the rest of the predicate, on the other, embrace most other constituents of main clauses like two prongs. The finite verb can be viewed as the first prong, the constituents of the predicate as the second prong.

Because of the variety of complements of the finite verb, the second prong can consist of a maximum of three sub-slots which contain the non-finite forms (3.15ff) of the predicate. In main clauses, the second prong of the predicate (= non-finite forms) is always in the terminal slot of the clause:

PREDICATE					
FIRST PRONG	CONSTITUENTS OF MAIN CLAUSE	TERMINAL SLOT SECOND PRONG			
		SUB-SLOT 1	SUB-SLOT 2	SUB-SLOT 3	REFER TO
f.v. Geht	er jetzt...	prefix aus?			3.131
f.v. Will	er jetzt...	infinit. ausgehen?			3.2232
f.v. Ist	er jetzt...	adject. müde?			3.315
f.v. Wird	er jetzt...	noun Lehrer?			3.316
f.v. Hat	er jetzt	past part. gearbeitet?			3.171
f.v. Wird	er jetzt...	past part. gegangen	infinit. sein ?		3.174
f.v. Ist	er jetzt...	past part. gesehen	past part. worden?		3.181
f.v. Hat	er jetzt...	infinit. arbeiten	infinit. wollen?		3.2232
f.v. Wird	er jetzt...	past part. gesehen	infinit. werden	infinit. müssen?	3.182
f.v. Wird	er jetzt...	past part. gesehen	past part. worden	infinit. sein?	3.181

In main clauses of type 1 (f.v.-1), the finite verb (= the first prong of the predicate) is in the first slot, and the rest of the predicate (=the second prong) is in the terminal slot. Between those two prongs of the predicate are all other constituents of the clause.

Main clauses of type 2 (f.v.-2) differ from type 1 only in that the finite verb is in the second slot, and the first slot can be occupied by any other constituent of the clause:

MAIN CLAUSE				
TYPE	SLOT 1	SLOT 2	EXPANDABLE INNER SLOTS	TERMINAL SLOT
1	f.v. Wird	subject er	objects/modifiers von ihr bald	max. 3 sub-slots gefragt werden ?
2	(subj) Er	f.v. wird	objects/modifers von ihr bald	max. 3 sub-slots gefragt werden .

Since in English the various constituents of the predicate are seldom divided from one another, the division of the predicate in German must be extensively practiced. As soon as the first compound predicates are introduced (which are most frequently separable verbs or the present perfect), all verb phrases should be practiced with inner slots, so that the division of the predicate is visible. Exercises in forming clauses from constituents or translation exercises should be used, as for example:

Heute/gehen/Vater/mit Kinder/Zoo (present perfect, future, add modal):
present perfect: Heute ist der Vater mit den Kindern in den Zoo gegangen.
future: Heute wird der Vater mit den Kindern in den Zoo gehen.
add modal: Heute will der Vater mit den Kindern in den Zoo gehen.

5.222 Position of the Subject

In English, most clauses have the order subject-predicate. Only in a few instances, such as after restrictive adverbs, does English have the subject following the predicate, e.g. 'hardly had he...' In German, the position of the subject is flexible:

In main clauses of type 1 (f.v.-1), the subject is nearly always in the second slot, following the finite verb:

SLOT 1	SLOT 2	
Geht	Vater	heute zur Arbeit?
Gehen	Sie	heute zur Arbeit!
Wäre	er	doch hier!

In main clauses of type 2 (f.v.-2), however, any constituent except the finite verb can occupy the first slot. If the subject is not in the first slot, it must be in the third, following the finite verb:

SLOT 1	SLOT 2	SLOT 3	INNER SLOTS	TERMINAL SLOT
Vater	ist		heute zur Arbeit	gegangen.
Heute	ist	Vater	zur Arbeit	gegangen.
Zur Arbeit	ist	Vater	heute	gegangen.
Dem Onkel	hat	er	das Buch	gegeben.
Das Buch	hat	er	dem Onkel	gegeben.

Unless it is the subject, the occupant of slot 1 is usually stressed (5.2241) or is the answer to a question:

Wem hat er das Buch gegeben? Dem Onkel hat er...
'To whom has he given the book? To the uncle he has..'

In particular, modifiers in the first slot must be practiced extensively to avoid the transfer of English word order, which often results in wrong clauses such as *Heute er hat...

Some main clauses have no subject. In main clauses of type 1, no subject occurs in the familiar imperative (3.165) leaving slot 2 empty:

Geh jetzt nach Haus! Geht jetzt zur Schule!
'Go home now!' 'Go to school now!'

In main clauses of type 2, there are two circumstances under which the subject is not expressed:

(1) with reflexive predicates (3.33221), when the first slot is occupied by another constituent:

Mich friert. Mir ist kalt.
('I am cold.')

(2) In the passive voice (3.18ff), when the underlying active clause has no accusative object:

Hier wird gearbeitet.
('Work is done here.')

In rare cases, the subject is preceded by a pronoun object, for example:

Außer ihm hat sie niemand beachtet.
('Besides him, nobody watched her.')

5.223 Position of Objects

When a main clause has one or more objects, the objects usually occupy the inner slots, unless they are in the first slot for emphasis (5.2241):

				INNER SLOTS			
TYPE	SLOT 1	SLOT 2	SLOT 3	SLOT 4	SLOT 5	SLOT 6	TERMINAL SL.
1 2 2	Hat Er Jetzt	er hat hat	 er	dem Enkel dem Enkel dem Enkel	das Geld das Geld das Geld	für sie für sie für sie	gegeben? gegeben. gegeben.

Within the inner slots, the dative precedes the accusative object when they are nouns. Prepositional objects usually follow objects, even if the latter are nouns, and the prepositional objects are pronouns.

However, when one object is a pronoun (4.16ff), the pronoun precedes the nominal objects:

				INNER SLOTS			
TYPE	SLOT 1	SLOT 2	SLOT 3	SLOT 4	SLOT 5	SLOT 6	TERMINAL SL.
1 2 2	Hat Er Jetzt	er hat hat	 er	ihm es es	das Geld dem Enkel dem Enkel	für sie für sie für sie	gegeben? gegeben. gegeben.

When both, the accusative and the dative objects, are pronouns, the accusative-object pronoun precedes the dative-object pronoun:

TYPE	SLOT 1	SLOT 2	SLOT 3	SLOT 4	SLOT 5	SLOT 6	TERMINAL SL.
1	Hat	er		es	ihm	für sie	gegeben?

This order of object pronouns which is opposite to the order of nominal objects must be practiced carefully.

5.224 Position of Modifiers

Modifiers of the predicate (3.4ff) can stand in the first slot, particularly modifiers of place (3.421) or time (3.422):

SLOT 1	SLOT 2	SLOT 3	SLOT 4	SLOT 5	TERMINAL SLOT
Gestern Hier	hat hat	er er	hier gestern	schwer schwer	gearbeitet. gearbeitet.

When several modifiers occupy the inner slots, their usual sequence is:

(1) modifier of time
(2) modifier of cause/condition/purpose/contrast
(3) modifier of mood

(4) modifier of place

SLOT 1	SLOT 2	SLOT 3	SLOT 4	SLOT 5	SLOT 6	SLOT 7	TERMINAL SL.
SUBJ	f.v.		TIME	CAUSE	MOOD	PLACE	2nd PRONG
Er	kommt		heute	deshalb	vielleicht PURPOSE dazu CONTRAST dennoch	hier	an.

Such sequence is non-emphatic; it does not stress any one of the modifiers (5.2241).

When the inner slots are occupied by objects and modifiers, the objects usually precede the modifiers.

5.2241 Emphatic Positions

For emphasis, any constituent of a main clause, except the finite verb, may be posited either in the first slot or in the slot immediately preceding the terminal slot.

Slot 1 usually carries the emphasis in response to questions or when stressing one constituent in a contrast:

Wann kommt er an? Heute kommt er an.
'When will he arrive? Today he will arrive.'

All constituents of clauses except the finite verb and the prefix as the occupant of the terminal slot may be moved into the first emphatic slot:

Acc Obj: Den Bruder hat er nicht gesehen, aber die Schwester.
'It wasn't the brother he saw, but the sister.'

Dat Obj: Dem Vater hat er geantwortet.
'It was the father (whom) he answered.'

Gen Obj: Der Schuld ist er sich bewußt.
'He is aware of the guilt.'

Prep Obj: In Hamburg hat er nie gewohnt.
'He has never lived in Hamburg.'

Modifier: Wegen des Regens gehen wir nicht spazieren.
'Because of the rain, we won't go for a walk.'

Infin: Kommen kann er nicht, aber er wird anrufen.
'He can't come, but he'll call.'

Past Part: Gesehen hat er sie nicht, sondern mit ihr telefoniert.
'He has not seen her, but he talked to her on the phone.'

Pres Part: Erschreckend ist diese Nachricht.
'This news is frightening.'

Pred Adj: Dankbar werden wir uns bestimmt zeigen.
'We'll certainly show our gratitude.'

It is important to practice the position of the subject in the third slot in such instances.

In addition to the first slot of main clauses of type 2, the pre-terminal slot carries emphasis. All occupants of the inner slots can be emphasized by moving them into the pre-terminal slot:

Modifier of Time: Er kommt doch bestimmt heute an.
'He'll arrive today for sure.'

Accusative Obj: Ich habe dem Vater schon das Buch gegeben.
'I already gave the book to the father.'

Dative Object: Ich habe das Buch schon dem Vater gegeben.
'I already gave the father the book.'

Genitive Obj: Er war sich nie richtig der Schuld bewußt.
'He was never really conscious of the guilt.'

The pre-terminal slot is frequently stressed by the intonational pattern (2.52) and contains the constituent which brings the new information.

5.2242 Position of Negation

The negation nicht 'not' is mood modifer (3.423) and serves to negate constituents of clauses (3.43; 4.43). When a whole clause is to be negated, nicht usually stands in the pre-terminal slot:

SLOT 1	SLOT 2	SLOT 3	SLOT 4	SLOT 5	PRE-TERM	TERMINAL SL.
Heute	kommt	er	deshalb	doch	nicht	an.

However, if the inner slots contain a prepositional phrase (3.325), the negation often precedes the prepositional phrase:

Gestern hat er ihm nicht für den Brief gedankt.
('Yesterday he did not thank him for the letter.')

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5.23 Coordination of Main Clauses

Two or more main clauses can be connected by positing them in close sequence, separated by a comma or colon without overt connectors. The main clauses may be of type 1 or type 2 (5.21):

Ich weiß es nicht, ich habe ihn nicht gefragt.
'I don't know that; I have not asked him.'
Komm jetzt, mach deine Arbeit!

A closer connection of two or more main clauses is made by coordinating conjunctions (5.231) or by adverbs and pronouns which function as connectors (5.232).

5.231 Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions (<Latin coniunctio 'connection') (e Konjunktion, s Bindewort) are lexical items which connect two main clauses of either type. The most frequent are:

und 'and'   (nicht)...sondern '(not)...but'   aber 'but'
oder 'or'   denn 'because'

These conjunctions stand in a separate slot between the two main clauses and have no influence on the word order:

SENTENCE		
MAIN CLAUSE 1	CON-JUNC-TION	MAIN CLAUSE 2
Ich weiß es nicht,	denn	ich habe ihn nicht gefragt.
Komm jetzt,	und	mach deine Arbeit!
Wirst du schreiben,	oder	wirst du anrufen?

Usually the coordinating conjunctions are preceded by a comma when the second clause contains a subject. However, often the constituents of the second main clause which are identical to those of the first can be deleted (5.413):

Wirst du schreiben oder (wirst du) anrufen?
'Will you write or (will you) call?'

Such deletion of constituents of the second clause cannot occur after denn and aber. Aber can also be an adverb (5.232).

When the second clause has no subject, no comma precedes the conjunction.

The same conjunctions can also function to join subordinate clauses, particularly daß-clauses (5.33ff).

5.232 Pronouns and Adverbs as Connectors

Prepositional pronouns (4.162) which refer to things can connect two main clauses. All da-compounds and trotzdem 'nevertheless,' seitdem 'since then,' stattdessen 'instead of it,' währenddessen 'during it' and deswegen 'because of it' can establish a semantic relationship between two main clauses:

Ich habe ihn nicht gefragt, trotzdem weiß ich es.
'I did not ask him; nevertheless, I know it.'

These pronouns are not conjunctions, and they should be called 'connectors,' since they semantically connect two main clauses. Because they are pronouns, they can also stand in the inner slots of the second main clause:

Ich habe ihn nicht gefragt, ich habe es trotzdem gewußt.
'I did not ask him; I knew it nevertheless.'

In either case, the second main clause is of type 2:

SENTENCE					
MAIN CLAUSE 1	MAIN CLAUSE 2				
	SLOT 1	SLOT 2	SLOT 3	INNER SLOTS	
	PRON.	f.v.	subj.		
Er hat ein neues Haus, 'He has a new house,	darin in it	wohnt (he	er lives)	jetzt. now.'	
	subj.	f.v.		mod.	PRON.
Er hat ein neues Haus, 'He has a new house,	er he	wohnt lives		jetzt now	darin. in it.'

All da-compounds and the prepositional pronouns of genitive noun phrases can function in this manner. The prepositional pronoun damit must be used with caution, since it can also be a subordinate conjunction meaning 'in order to' (5.3344). Only when damit is a prepositional pronoun replacing a prepositional phrase introduced by mit can it be a connector:

Er hat ein neues Auto, damit kommt er heute. (=mit dem Auto).
Er hat ein neues Auto, er kommt heute damit.
'He has a new car; with it he comes today.'

As a pronoun, trotzdem means 'nevertheless, nonetheless' and seitdem means 'since then.' Both pronouns can also be subordinating conjunctions; trotzdem introducing a clause of contrast (5.3345) and meaning 'although,' and seitdem introducing a clause of time (5.3342) and meaning 'since.'

In the same manner as the above prepositional pronouns, adverbs can also function as semantic connectors and occupy either the first or one of the inner slots of a second main clause (3.411).

Modifying adverbs of cause are:

deshalb/deswegen/daher/also 'therefore'
folglich/infolgedessen 'consequently'

Modifying adverbs of contrast are:

nichtsdestoweniger/dennoch/doch/allerdings/aber 'however/nonetheless'

Ich habe ihn nicht gefragt, dennoch weiß ich es.
Ich habe ihn nicht gefragt, ich weiß es dennoch.
'I did not ask him; I know of it nevertheless.'

These main clauses with adverbs and pronouns have a transformational relationship to subordinate modifier clauses (5.334ff).

Because of the difference in word order, it is important not to confuse main clauses connected by coordinating conjunctions (5.231) and main clauses whose first slot is occupied by an adverb or pronoun:

Ich habe ihn nicht gefragt, aber ich weiß es.
Ich habe ihn nicht gefragt, doch weiß ich es.
'I have not asked him, but I know it.'

A few adverbs are binary: the first part is in the first main clause, the second part can introduce the second main clause. Examples of these adverbs include:

einerseits...andererseits 'on the one hand...on the other hand'
bald...bald 'sometimes...sometimes'
je...desto 'the...the'
weder...noch 'neither...nor'

Einerseits freut er sich auf die Reise, andererseits möchte er gern zu Haus bleiben.
'On the one hand he looks forward to the trip, on the other hand he would gladly stay home.'

Je mehr wir arbeiten, desto müder sind wir abends.
'The more we work, the more tired we are in the evening.'

Note that je...desto must be connected by an adjective in the comparative (4.144), and each part occupies one slot together with the adjective.

Occasionally, the der-determiners as pronouns (4.231) can connect two main clauses. They should not be confused with relative pronoun-conjunctions, which introduce a subordinate clause with the finite verb in the terminal slot (5.331).

Der Mann da, der heißt Schmitt.
'That man there is called Schmitt.'

5.3 Subordinate Clauses

5.31 Function of Subordinate Clauses

Subordinate or dependent clauses (r abhängige Satz, Nebensatz) are semantically and functionally related to a main clause or one of its constituents, and they can rarely stand alone (5.3346).

Subordinate clauses function as below:

Replacement of a noun phrase by a verb phrase:

> Wir erwarten seine pünktliche Ankunft.
> 'We expect his punctual arrival.'
> Wir erwarten, daß er pünktlich ankommt.
>
> Such replacements can occur with all nominal constituents of main clauses, which are the subject, the objects, and the prepositional modifiers. In German, a constituent of a clause is called s Satzglied; therefore, a subordinate clause which replaces it is known as r Gliedsatz or, more specifically, r Objektsatz for the example above.

Abbreviation of two main clauses to avoid repetition of a constituent which occurs in both clauses:

> Er arbeitet in einer Fabrik. Die Fabrik stellt Autos her.
> 'He works in a factory. The factory produces cars.'
> Er arbeitet in einer Fabrik, die Autos herstellt.
> 'He works in a factory which produces cars.'
>
> Such abbreviation by collapsing two main clauses and transforming one of them into a subordinate clause is achieved mainly through relative clauses (5.331).

German subordinate clauses have a form distinct from main clauses in that they are always introduced by a subordinating conjunction and the verb is in the terminal slot.

5.32 Position of Constituents in Subordinate Clauses

All subordinate clauses are introduced by subordinating conjunctions, which are lexical items. These conjunctions will be discussed with each type of subordinate clause in section 5.33ff.

Subordinate clauses are further defined by the position of the finite verb in the last slot of the terminal slot:

MAIN CLAUSE TYPE 2:

SLOT 1	SLOT 2	INNER SLOTS	TERMINAL SLOT
			max. 3 non-finite subslots
subj	f.v.	object/modif.	rest of predicate
Er	will	den Film heute	sehen.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE:

CONJUNCTION	SLOT 1	SLOT 2	INNER SLOTS	TERMINAL SLOT	
	subj.	----	obj./mod.	max. 2 non-finite subslots	f.v.
weil	er		den Film heute	sehen	will.

In main clauses, the terminal slots are occupied by at most three complements of the verb and constitute the second prong of the predicate (5.221). In subordinate clauses, the terminal slots also contain three sub-slots, of which one, however, is the finite verb, and only two are non-finite complements of the verb.

When the second prong of the predicate is a prefix, a single infinitive, an adjective, a noun, or one or two past participles, the finite verb occupies the last sub-slot of the terminal slot. However, when the second prong is occupied by two infinitives, the finite verb occupies the first sub-slot of the terminal slot.

No subordinate clauses are formed from main clauses whose predicate contains two past participles plus one infinitive and only very seldom from predicates with two infinitives plus a past participle.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE					
CONJUNCTION	SUBJ.	INNER SLOTS	TERMINAL SLOT		
			SUB-SL. 1	SUB SL. 2	LAST SUB-SL.
weil	er	jetzt...	prefix aus----	----------	----geht. (f.v.)
weil	er	jetzt...	infinit. ausgehen		f.v. will.
weil	er	jetzt...	adjective müde		f.v. ist.
weil	er	jetzt...	noun Lehrer		f.v. wird.
weil	er	jetzt...	past part. gesehen	past part. worden	f.v. ist.
weil	er	jetzt...	past part. gegangen	infinit. sein	f.v. wird.
weil	er	jetzt...	f.v. hat	infinit. arbeiten	infinit wollen.

Since the predicate with two infinitives is comparatively rare, as simple formula it may be remembered that subordinate clauses have the finite verb in the last slot (f.v.-L).

All other constituents of subordinate clauses are in the same slots as in main clauses: the subject follows the conjunction, and the inner slots are occupied by objects and modifiers in the non-emphatic sequence of main clauses (5.22ff).

5.33 Types of Subordinate Clauses

5.331 Relative Clauses

Relative clauses (<Latin relativus 'referring back') (r bezügliche Satz) in English are introduced by 'which' or 'that' for things, 'who/whom/whose' for persons:

> 'You met my friend. She lives next door. I drive her car.'
> 'You met my friend who lives next door and whose car I drive.'

German relative clauses are introduced by the der-determiner in its pronominal form (dative plural and all genitives expanded by en: denen; dessen, deren; 4.163) and it functions both as pronoun and as subordinating conjunction, which requires the finite verb to be in the last slot.

Relative clauses collapse two main clauses by avoiding the repetition of identical nouns in both main clauses. The relative pronoun-conjunction takes the gender and number of the noun in the first main clause and the case of the noun in the second main clause. The relative pronoun can replace any noun phrase (subject, objects, prepositional phrases):

Du kennst meine Freudin. Meine Freundin wohnt nebenan.
'You know my friend. She lives next door.'
Du kennst meine Freundin, die nebenan wohnt.
'You know my friend, who lives next door.'

When the noun phrase to be replaced by the relative pronoun is a prepositional phrase, the preposition stands in front of the relative pronoun:

Du kennst meine Freundin. Ich fahre mit meiner Freundin weg.
'You know my friend. I travel with my friend.'
Du kennst meine Freundin, mit der ich wegfahre.
'You know my friend with whom I travel.'

When the noun to be replaced by a relative pronoun is a genitive modifier (4.422), the determiner of the head noun is deleted and the adjective has the determining inflection (4.141); both follow the genitive relative pronoun dessen or deren:

Du kennst meine Freundin. Ich fahre das neue Auto der Freundin.
'You know my friend. I drive the new car of my friend.'
Du kennst meine Freundin, deren neues Auto ich fahre.
'You know my friend whose new car I drive.'

Students find this transformation somewhat difficult, and it must be practiced. The transformation in which the genitive is expressed by a possessive determiner (4.132) is easier:

Du kennst meine Freundin. Ich fahre ihr neues Auto.
'You know my friend. I drive her new car.'
Du kennst meine Freundin, deren neues Auto ich fahre.
'You know my friend whose new car I drive.'

A relative clause cannot be the first clause in a sentence. It must stand as close to the head noun as possible; therefore, it is often embedded in the first main clause (5.412):

Meine Freundin, deren neues Auto ich fahre, kennst du.
'My friend, whose new car I drive, you know.'

Relative clauses are always separated from the main clause by commas.

Occasionally, a clause refers to the content of another whole clause:

Er hat die Prüfung bestanden. Das freut mich/Darüber freue ich mich (=(über) sein Bestehen der Prüfung).
'He has passed the exam. That pleases me/I'm pleased

about it (=about his passing the exam).'

Such clauses can be collapsed by using was for a non-prepositional noun phrase, and wo+preposition for a prepositional phrase:

Er hat die Prüfung bestanden, was mich freut.
'He passed the exam, which pleases me.'
Er hat die Prüfung bestanden, worüber ich mich freue.
'He passed the exam, about which I am glad.'

When the noun phrase to be replaced by a relative pronoun-conjunction is a modifier of place (3.421) denoting a town or country, the relative pronoun may be the interrogative pronoun wo/wohin/woher (4.165).

Er hat lange in Berlin gewohnt. Er fährt wieder nach Berlin.
Er hat lange in Berlin gewohnt, wohin er wieder fährt.
Er fährt wieder nach Berlin, wo er lange gewohnt hat.
'He is going to Berlin again, where he lived for a long time.'

When an indefinite person or thing is the noun to be replaced, the interrogative pronoun wer/wen/wem/wessen or was can function as a relative pronoun and, at the same time, replace the head noun:

Ein Mensch arbeitet viel. Ein Mensch ist abends müde.
Ein Mensch, der arbeitet, ist abends müde.
Wer viel arbeitet, ist abends müde.
'A person works a lot. A person is tired in the evening.'
'A person who works a lot is tired in the evening.'
'He who works a lot is tired in the evening.'

Such relative clauses must stand at the beginning of a sentence; the main clause is of type 1 (4.21). Proverbs are frequently in this form:

Wer nicht arbeiten will, darf auch nicht essen.
'If you don't work, you don't eat.'
Was ich nicht weiß, macht mich nicht heiß.
'What I don't know won't hurt me.'
Wes(sen) Brot ich eß', des(sen) Lied ich sing.
'Never quarrel with your bread and butter.'

In earlier stages of German, the determiner-pronoun welcher/welches/welche (4.163) was sometimes used as relative pronoun. Today it is used very rarely, only when repetition of several relative pronouns of the same form is to be avoided:

Ich spreche nicht mehr mit Hans, der meinen Mantel, welcher sehr teuer war, zerrissen hat.
'I won't talk to Hans any longer, who tore my coat, which was very expensive.'

If the head noun in the main clause is represented by an indefinite pronoun (4.164) such as etwas, nichts or alles, the relative pronoun-conjunction is was or a wo compound:

Es ist nicht alles Gold, was glänzt.
('All that glitters is not gold.')
Es gab etwas/nichts, was er fragte.
'There was something/nothing he asked.'
Ich gab ihm alles, worum er bat.
'I gave him everything he asked for.'

5.332 daß-Clauses

Subordinate clauses introduced by the conjunction daß replace a noun phrase by a verb phrase. Such noun phrases may be the subject, the accusative object, or a prepositional object.

(1) Subject:

Seine plötzliche Abreise war für uns überraschend.
Es war für uns überraschend, daß er plötzlich abreiste.
Daß er plötzlich abreiste, war für uns überraschend.

The personal pronoun es is the grammatical subject of the initial main clause. When the daß-clause is the initial clause in the sentence, it functions as the subject of the main clause.

(2) Accusative Object:

Wir hörten seine plötzliche Abreise.
Wir hörten (es), daß er plötzlich abreiste.
Daß er plötzlich abreiste, hörten wir.
'That he suddenly departed, we heard.'

The daß-clause replaces the accusative object; the pronoun es is most frequently deleted. Unlike English, daß may not be deleted ('we heard he suddenly departed'), unless a main clause is formed: Wir hörten es. Er reiste plötzlich ab.

(3) Prepositional Object:

Wir erfuhren von seiner plötzlichen Abreise.
Wir erfuhren (davon), daß er plötzlich abreiste.
Daß er plötzlich abreiste, (davon) erfuhren wir.
'That he suddenly departed, (about that) we found out.'

The prepositional pronoun with da- can function as an antecedent, but it also may be deleted.

Such daß-clauses are extremely common, and they should be introduced as the first subordinate clauses in an elementary German course; their function is identical in English and German. Daß-clauses may be transformed into infinitive constructions (3.2411; 5.3321).

For further discussion on indirect speech and daß-clauses, see section 3.2241.

5.3321 Infinitive Constructions

Under certain conditions, daß-clauses can be transformed into infinitive constructions:

(1) The subject in the daß-clause and the main clause is identical. The conjunction daß and the subject are deleted, and the finite verb becomes an infinitive with zu (3.2411):

Er glaubt, daß er richtig gehandelt hat.
Er glaubt, richtig gehandelt zu haben.
'He believes to have acted correctly.'

(2) The accusative object of the main clause is identical to the subject of the daß-clause:

Sie bat ihn, daß er pünktlich kommt.
Sie bat ihn, pünktlich zu kommen.
'She asked him to come on time.'

(3) The dative object of the main clause is identical to the subject of the daß-clause:

Sie riet ihm, daß er nachgeben sollte.
Sie riet ihm nachzugeben.
'She advised him to give in.'

(4) The prepositional object is identical to the subject of the daß-clause:

Sie richtete die Bitte an ihn, daß er mitkommt.
Sie richtete die Bitte an ihn mitzukommen.

When the prepositional phrase refers to a thing, the antecedent with da- is obligatory:

Er besteht darauf, daß er mitkommt.
Er besteht darauf mitzukommen.

Note that all expanded infinitive constructions which contain more than the infinitive are introduced by a comma.

Since underlying both a daß-clause and an infinitive construction is a noun phrase, infinitive constructions can also replace noun phrases without a previous daß-clause:

Seine Rettung war unmöglich.
Es war unmöglich, ihn zu retten.
'It was impossible to save him.'

When the underlying noun phrase has the prepositions statt or ohne, the prepositions introduce the infinitive constructions:

Statt der Arbeit macht er Musik.
Statt zu arbeiten, musiziert er.
'Instead (of working) he makes music.'

Such infinitive constructions must be practiced, since English renders them with a gerund.

For further discussion of infinitives with um...zu, see section 5.3343.

5.333 Interrogative Clauses

Every question introduced by an interrogative pronoun (4.165) can be transformed into an indirect question, which

is a aubordinate clause (r Fragesatz). The interrogative pronoun functions as conjunction, and the verb is in the terminal slot:

Ich weiß nicht: Wann kommt er uns heute besuchen?
Ich weiß nicht, wann er uns heute besuchen kommt.
'I don't know: When will he come to visit us today?'
'I don't know when he'll come to visit us today.'

Alternative questions without an interrogative pronoun and with the finite verb in the first position can also be transformed into direct questions, the conjunction is ob 'whether/if' (5.211):

Ich weiß nicht: Kommt er uns heute besuchen?
Ich weiß nicht, ob er uns heute besuchen kommt.
'I don't know: Will he come to visit us today?'
'I don't know if he will come to visit us today.'

The subordinate clause may introduce the sentence, and the main clause is of type 1:

Ob er uns heute besuchen kommt, weiß ich nicht.
('If he'll come to visit us today I don't know.')

Interrogative clauses function like daß-clauses, in that they replace a subject, object or prepositional phrase (5.332). When the interrogative clause is the initial clause in a sentence and replaces a prepositional phrase referring to a thing, a da-compound frequently introduces the main clause:

Er fragte (danach), wann wir kommen.
Wann wir kommen, danach fragte er.
('When we'll come, he asked about that.')

For further discussion about indirect speech, see section 3.2241; interrogative pronouns 4.165.

5.334 Modifier Clauses

All modifiers of the predicate (3.4ff) can be replaced by a subordinate clause, particularly when the modifier is in the form of a prepositional phrase. However, there are no subordinate clauses of emphasis, and modifiers of mood (3.423) are rendered as relative clauses.

Since modifiers were classified semantically, their corresponding subordinate clauses are classified in the same manner:

5.3341 Clauses of Place

Unlike all other modifier clauses (5.3342ff), clauses of place do not have their own conjunctions, but they are rendered by a relative clause (5.331), which replaces the underlying prepositional phrase:

When two main clauses contain a prepositional phrase whose noun is the name of a town or a country, the subordinate conjunctions are the interrogative pronouns wo/wohin/woher (4.165), which function as relative pronoun-conjunctions:

Er hat lange in Berlin gewohnt. Er fährt bald wieder nach Berlin.
'He lived a long time in Berlin.' 'He will soon go to Berlin again.'
Er hat lange in Berlin gewohnt, wohin er bald wieder fährt.
'He lived a long time in Berlin, where he will soon go again.'
Er fährt bald wieder nach Berlin, wo er lange gewohnt hat.
'He will drive again to Berlin soon, where he lived for a long time.'

If the modifier denotes any other place, a relative clause is used:

Er eilt in das Haus. In dem Haus wohnt seine Freundin.
Er eilt in das Haus, in dem seine Freundin wohnt.
In dem Haus, in das er eilt, wohnt seine Freundin.
'His friend lives in the house he hurries into.'

For further discussion of modifiers of place in the verb phrase, see section 3.421.

5.3342 Clauses of Time

Clauses of time (r Temporalsatz) take a variety of conjunctions which establish semantic relationships between clauses:

wenn 'whenever'	während 'while'
als 'when'	bevor 'before'
bis 'until'	sobald 'as soon as'
solange 'as long as'	seit(dem) 'since' (5.232)
nachdem 'after'	sooft 'as often as'

Wenn and als are in complementary distribution: wenn is used for actions occurring repeatedly and for actions which occur only one time in the present and future; als is used for an action which occured only one time in the past:

Man reist viel. Man benutzt das Flugzeug.
Wenn man viel reist, benutzt man das Flugzeug.
'When on travels much, one uses a plane.'
Als wir letztes Jahr verreisten, benutzten wir das Flugzeug.
'When we travelled last year, we used the plane.'

The subordinating conjunction wenn should not be confused with wenn 'if' in conditional clauses (5.3347) nor with the interrogative pronoun-conjunction wann? 'when?' The conjunction als also functions in clauses of comparison

(5.3347).

As conjunctions, the prepositions bis, während and seit(dem) replace a noun phrase with a subordinate clause:

> Wir arbeiteten bis zum frühen Morgen.
> Wir arbeiteten, bis der frühe Morgen graute.
> 'We worked until the early morning (dawned).'

> Während des Essens soll man nicht reden.
> 'During the meal one should not talk.'
> Während man ißt, soll man nicht reden.
> 'While one eats, one should not talk.'

> Seit seiner Ankunft in Deutschland spricht er nur Deutsch.
> Seit(dem) er in Deutschland angekommen ist, spricht er nur Deutsch.
> 'Since he arrived in Germany, he speaks only German.'

Bevor replaces a time modifier (3.422) introduced by the preposition vor:

> Vor seiner Ankunft sprach er nur Englisch.
> Bevor er angekommen war, sprach er nur Englisch.
> 'Before he had arrived, he spoke only English.'

The subordinating conjunction nachdem replaces a time modifier introduced by the preposition nach. When the main clause is in the present tense (3.161), the subordinate clause must be in the present perfect; when the main clause is in the past tense, the subordinate clause must be in the past perfect (3.172):

> Alle Reisenden verlassen das Flugzeug nach seiner sicheren Landung.
> Alle Reisenden verlassen/verließen das Flugzeug, nachdem es sicher gelandet ist/war.
> 'All travelers leave/left the plane, after it has/had landed safely.'

All subordinate clauses of time can introduce a sentence; the following main clause is of type 1. If the main clause is in the beginning, it is of type 2 (5.21).

For further discussion of modifiers of time, see sections 3.214 and 3.422.

5.3343 Clauses of Cause

Subordinate clauses of cause (r Kausalsatz) are introduced by weil or da 'because (since) (as),'and they replace a modifier of cause introduced by the preposition wegen (3.424):

> Wegen seiner schweren Krankeit lag er im Krankenhaus.
> Weil/Da er schwer krank war, lag er im Krankenhaus.
> 'Because/since/as he was very sick, he was in the hospital.'

Clauses of cause stand before or after the main clause.

The same meaning can be expressed by the coordinating conjunction denn (5.231) 'for/because;' which combines two main clauses of type 2:

Er lag im Krankenhaus, denn er war krank.
'He was in the hospital, for/because he was sick.'

Pronouns and adverbs as connectors (5.232) can also convey the same meaning:

Er war krank, deshalb/darum/deswegen/daher/folglich/also lag er im Krankenhaus.
'He was sick, consequently/therefore he was in the hospital.'

The transformation of prepositional phrases into subordinate clauses or main clauses introduced by coordinating conjunctions or adverbs and pronouns must be practiced, especially with regards to the position of the finite verb.

For complete discussion of modifiers of cause, see section 3.242.

5.3344 Clauses of Purpose

Subordinate clauses of purpose (r Finalsatz) replace a modifier expressed by a prepositional phrase with zu (3.425) and they are introduced by the subordinating conjunction damit 'so that.' This conjunction should not be confused with the prepositional pronoun damit 'with it' (5.232).

Er kommt zum Studium der deutschen Literatur nach München.
Er kommt nach München, damit er deutsche Literatur studiert.
'He comes to Munich, so that he (can) study German literature.'

If the subject of both clauses is identical, these subordinate clauses can be transformed into infinitive constructions with zu (3.2411) introduced by um:

Er kommt nach München, um deutsche Literatur zu studieren.
'He comes to Munich in order to study German literature.'

Another way to express a purpose or an intention is to use the modal verbs wollen and möchte (3.223ff). Clauses of cause (5.3343) which contain these modals can also be transformed into an infinitive; the modal is deleted:

Er kommt nach München, weil er deutsche Literatur studieren will.
'He comes to Munich because he wants to study German literature.'
Er kommt nach München, um deutsche Literatur zu studieren.

The conjunction damit has a less common synonym: sodaß (written in one word). Clauses introduced by damit, or sodaß and, frequently, containing the modal verb können, also allow transformation into an infinitive construction if the subjects in both clauses are identical; the modal

may or may not be deleted:

Er kommt nach München, sodaß er deutsche Literatur studieren kann.
'He comes to Munich so that he can study German literature.'
Er kommt nach München, um deutsche Literatur zu studieren/ studieren zu können.

For further discussion of the use of modal verbs, see section 3.1351 and 3.223ff. For the use of modifiers of purpose, see section 3.425.

5.3345 Clauses of Contrast

Clauses of contrast (r Konzessivsatz) replace a modifier introduced by the preposition trotz (3.426); they are introduced by the subordinating conjunctions obwohl/obgleich/ obschon '(al)though:'

Trotz des starken Regens gehen wir spazieren.
Obwohl/obgleich/obschon es stark regnet, gehen wir spazieren.
'Although it rains hard, we go for a walk.'

Trotzdem can also be a subordinating conjunction and can be used instead of obwohl above. At the same time, trotzdem with the meaning of 'nevertheless' can function as a pronoun introducing a main clause of type 1 (5.232). This main clause can never be in the beginning of a sentence:

Es regnet stark, trotzdem gehen wir spazieren.
'It rains hard, nevertheless we go for a walk.'

The adverb dennoch can be used in the same manner as trotzdem in the example above. At the same time, both can stand adverbially in the inner slot of the second main clause:

Es regnet stark, wir gehen trotzdem/dennoch spazieren.
'It rains hard; we nevertheless go for a walk.'

The coordinating conjunction aber (5.231) 'but' conveys the same meaning, and it also may be used adverbially in the inner slot of the second main clause:

Es regnet stark, aber wir gehen spazieren.
'It rains hard, but we go for a walk.'
Es regnet stark, wir gehen aber spazieren.
'It rains hard; we nevertheless go for a walk.'

Another way to express clauses of contrast is by introducing them with wenn and adding auch noch so adverbially within the inner slots of the subordinate clause:

Wenn es auch noch so stark regnet, gehen wir spazieren.
'Even if it rains very hard, we go for a walk.'

Since the conjunction wenn can be deleted when it means 'if' (3.2251; 5.3346), a main clause of type 1 results from moving the finite verbs in the first slot:

Regnet es auch noch so stark, gehen wir spazieren.

Another way to form a clause of contrast is to introduce it with wie, followed by the adjective, and auch in the inner slot:

Wie stark es auch regnet, gehen wir spazieren.
'However hard it rains, we are going for a walk.'

For complete discussion of modifiers of contrast, see section 3.426.

5.3346 Clauses of Condition

Clauses of condition (r Konditionalsatz, Bedingungssatz) are introduced by wenn 'if;' they replace modifiers of condition (3.427):

Bei starkem Regen gehen wir nicht spazieren.
Wenn es stark regnet, gehen wir nicht spazieren.
Wir gehen nicht spazieren, wenn es stark regnet.
'If it rains hard, we won't go for a walk.'

The conjunction wenn can be deletted and the finite verb moves into the first slot, creating a main clause of type 1 (5.21):

Regnet es stark, gehen wir nicht spazieren.

Unreal wishes have the same form as clauses of condition, emphasised by nur or doch (3.2252). The finite verb is always in the general subjunctive (3.225), and unreal wishes stand alone without a main clause:

Wenn er doch käme! Käme er doch!
'If only he would come.' ('If only he would come!')

Unreal conditions are also in the general subjunctive and denote the opposite of reality:

Es regnet. Wir gehen nicht spazieren.
'It's raining. We won't go for a walk.'
Wenn es nicht regnen würde, gingen wir spazieren.
'If it weren't raining, we would go for a walk.'

For complete discussion of unreal conditions, see section 3.2241, for modifiers of conditions, see section 3.427.

5.3347 Clauses of Comparison

Clauses of comparison (r Vergleichssatz) on the same level are introduced by wie, and the following main clause of type 1 starts with the adverb so:

Wie man sich bettet, so schläft man.
('As one makes one's bed, so one must lie.')

When comparing two adjectives on the same level, the main clause stands in the beginning of the sentence; the adjective is stressed with so and the subordinate clause follows with wie:

Er ist so alt, wie ich es bin.
'He is as old as I am.'

Very frequently the verb of the subordinate clause is deleted:

Er ist so alt wie ich. 'He is as old as I.'

A comparison of an adjective on different levels requires the adjective in the comparative (4.144) and the subordinate clause is introduced by als 'than:'

Er ist älter, als ich es bin. Er ist älter als ich.
'He is older than I am.' 'He is older than I.'

Another comparison of two adjectives requires je and the comparative in the initial main clause, and a main clause of type 2 introduced by desto or umso (5.232):

Je älter man wird, desto klüger sollte man werden.
'The older one gets, the wiser one should become.'

For further discussion of unreal comparisons, see section 3.2243. For further discussion of modifiers of comparison, see section 3.428.

5.4 Complex Sentences

5.41 Position of Clauses in Sentences

Complex sentences are sentences which contain more than two clauses:

Ich glaube, daß er gelernt hat, wieviel schwerer er arbeiten muß, wenn er die Prüfung, die am nächsten Donnerstag stattfindet und die als sehr schwierig bekannt ist, bestehen will.
'I believe that he has learned how much harder he must study, if he wants to pass the exam which takes place next Thursday and which is known to be very difficult.'

Because of the difference in word order in German and English, particularly with respect to the predicate, students often find such complex sentences confusing and difficult. Practice in reading and translation to achieve ease in recognizing or positing the predicate into the proper slot is needed.

The position of clauses within sentences is relatively free; the majority of clauses can function as initial clauses; some sentences are embedded.

5.411 Initial Clauses

Any sentence can be introduced by a main clause (5.21):

Ich glaube, daß er es gelernt hat. (type 1)
'I believe that he has learned it.'
Glaubst du, daß er es gelernt hat? (type 2)
('Do you believe) that he has learned it?'

Only rarely can a main clause introduced by a coordinating conjunction (5.231) begin a sentence:

Und ich glaube es doch, daß er es gelernt hat.
'And I still believe that he has learned it.'

More common is the introduction of a main clause in initial position by an adverb or pronoun (5.232):

Deshalb glaube ich es doch, daß er es gelernt hat.
'Therefore I still believe that he has learned it.'

Subordinate clauses, when introducing a sentence, are somewhat emphatic. Frequently, a main clause following the subordinate clause has an adverb or pronoun in its first slot (5.2242); the main clause is then of type 2. If no adverb or pronoun introduces the main clause, the main clause is of type 1.

Of the various subordinate clauses (5.33ff), the following can introduce a sentence:

(1) Daß-clauses (5.332):
Daß er es gelernt hat, (das) glaube ich jetzt.
'That he has learned it, (that) I now believe.'

(2) Infinitive constructions (5.3321):

Es gelernt zu haben, ist für ihn eine Erleichterung.
'To have learned it is for him a relief.'

(3) Interrogative clauses (5.333):

Wieviel schwerer er arbeiten muß, (das) hat er nun gelernt.
'How much harder he must work he now has learned.'

(4) Clauses of time (5.3342):

Als die Prüfung stattfand, hatte er genug gelernt.
'When the exam took place, he had studied enough.'

(5) Clauses of cause (5.3343):

Weil er die Prüfung machen will, muß er viel arbeiten.
'Because he wants to take the exam, he has to study a lot.'

(6) Clauses of purpose (5.3344):

Damit er die Prüfung besteht, arbeitet er viel.
'So that he will pass the exam, he studies a lot.'

Infinitive constructios (5.3321):

Um die Prüfung zu bestehen, arbeitet er viel.
'In order to pass the exam, he studies alot.'

(7) Clauses of contrast (5.3345):

Obwohl er viel arbeitet, besteht er die Prüfung nicht.
'Although he studies a lot, he does not pass the exam.'

(8) Clauses of condition (5.3346):

Wenn er viel gearbeitet hätte, hätte er die Prüfung bestanden.
'If he had studied a lot he would have passed the exam.'

Relative clauses (5.331), cannot be in initial position in sentences, since they refer to a preceding noun or clause:

Er will die Prüfung machen, die am Donnerstag stattfindet.
'He wants to take the exam which takes place Thursday.'

There is one exception to this general rule: relative clauses which begin with wer 'he who' or was 'that which' are always initial clauses:

Wer das weiß, soll es sagen. Was er weiß, sagt er nicht.
'He who knows it should say it. What he knows he does not say.'

Since clauses of place (5.3341) are introduced by either relative pronoun-conjunctions or interrogatives, they are not clearly clauses of place when they occur in initial position. An adverb or pronoun is required in the main clause to make the local meaning clear:

Wo sie wohnt, dahin fahre ich.
'Where she lives (there) I go.'

Clauses of comparison seldom occur initially:

Er ist so alt, wie ich es bin.
'He is as old as I am.'

All of the examples above show only a main clause and a subordinate clause: However, each of the sentences can be lengthened by the addition of more subordinate clauses, such as:

Wieviel schwerer er arbeiten muß, (das) hat er nun gelernt, weil ihn sein Lehrer gewarnt hat, daß er noch nicht genug kann, um die Prüfung zu bestehen oder auch nur um zugelassen zu werden.
'How much harder he must work (that) he has learned now, because his teacher warned him that he still does not know enough (in order) to pass the exam or even just to be admitted.'

Note that two subordinate clauses can be connected by a coordinating conjunction (5.231), which has no influence on the word order.

5.412 Embedded Clauses

Besides sequencing one clause after another in a sentence, clauses can also be embedded into one another:

Er will die Prüfung bestehen. Sie ist als schwierig bekannt.
Er will die Prüfung, die als schwierig bekannt ist, bestehen.

Such embedding is done for the purpose of positing a clause as closely as possible to the constituent of the head clause to which it refers. This occurs particularly frequently with relative clauses (5.331), which refer to noun phrases.

To embed a clause within a head clause, that head clause (which may be a main clause or a subordinate clause) is divided after a slot boundary. Then, the clause to be embedded is posited into the head clause and enclosed by commas. After the embedded clause, the head clause continues in its unchanged word order, as in the example above.

Embedded clauses are most frequently:

Main clauses:

Wann, fragte er sie, kannst du kommen?
'When, (he asked her), can you come?'

The embedded main clause is always of type 1 (5.21).

Relative clauses (5.331):

Er will die Prüfung, die als sehr schwierig bekannt ist, bestehen.

Relative clauses must stand close to the head noun phrase to which they refer. However, if no more than two words follow that head noun phrase, the relative clause may also be sequenced, instead of being embedded:

Er will die Prüfung bestehen, die als schwierig bekannt ist.

Daß-clauses (5.332):

Seine Behauptung, daß er die Prüfung bestanden hat, ist zweifelhaft.
'His statement that he has passed the exam is doubtful.'

Infinitive constructions:

Seine Behauptung, die Prüfung bestanden zu haben, ist zweifelhaft.
'His statement that he has passed the exam is doubtful.'

All modifier clauses (5.334ff), except clauses of comparison (5.3347), can be embedded in the same manner.

Such embedded clauses permit stylistic variations which should be practiced especially in advanced clauses to create a more lively style than sequenced clauses can afford.

Not only one clause, but several clauses can be embedded into one head clause, or one embedded clause may comprise another:

Seine Behauptung, daß er die Prüfung, die letzte Woche stattfand, bestanden hat, ist zweifelhaft.
'His statement that he passed the exam which took place last week, is doubtful.'

5.413 Abbreviated Clauses

When two or more clauses in one sentence contain the same constituents, some of the repetition can be deleted:

In main clauses coordinated by und, (nicht)...sondern and oder or connected by weder...noch, the subject of the second clause can be deleted:

Er ist krank und (er) liegt im Bett.
'He is sick and (he) lies in bed.'

Note that the comma is also deleted.
Parts of the predicate:

Er will gelobt (werden) und (er) (will) geehrt werden.
'He wants to be praised and (he) (wants to be) honored.'

Objects:

Sie hat das Buch geschrieben und (sie) (hat) (das Buch) veröffentlicht.
'She has written the book and (she) (has) published (the book).'

Note that such deletions are not possible with main clauses coordinated by denn or aber (5.231).

In subordinate clauses in English the conjunction 'that' is deleted under certain conditions.

'I know (that) the book belongs to him.'

Similarly in German, the conjunction daß can be deleted, but the finite verb must be moved into the second slot, so that a main clause results:

Ich weiß, daß das Buch ihm gehört.
Ich weiß, das Buch gehört ihm.

In both languages, wenn 'if' can be deleted in conditional clauses (5.3346); in German a main clause of type 1 results:

Wenn er reich wäre...Wäre er reich...
'If he were rich...' 'Were he rich...'

When the predicate contains an adjective as the complement of the verb sein, the subject and the finite verb can be deleted in conditional clauses in either language:

Ich gebe dir das Geld, wenn (es) nötig (ist).
'I'll give you the money, if (it) (is) necessary.'

In English, such deletions are possible when a conditional clause contains a passive verb phrase. In German, this is not possible. The parentheses in the following examples illustrate the difference between English and German:

'I'll give him the money, if (it) (is) required.'
Ich gebe ihm das Geld, wenn es verlangt wird.

In both languages, the finite verb in clauses of comparison (5.3347; but not in unreal comparisons, (3.2253), as well as es can be deleted:

Er dachte tiefer darüber nach (,) als sie (es) (tat).
'He thought about it more deeply than she did (it).'

Since infinitive constructions (5.3321) have no finite verb, they are no clauses in the strict sense of the word. However, they are essentially abbreviated clauses:

Er hofft, daß er keinen Fehler gemacht hat.
Er hofft, keinen Fehler gemacht zu haben.
'He hopes that he did not make a mistake.'
'He hopes not to have made a mistake.'

A further abbreviation of clauses can occur by participial constructions, which are, however, not very common in German. Clauses with daß, most clauses of time, and all clauses of cause can be abbreviated when they contain a past participle (3.152; 3.242), and when the subject is identical in both clauses:

Nachdem sie sich mit viel Geld versorgt hatte, ging sie einkaufen.
'After she had provided herself with much money, she went shopping.'

Mit viel Geld versogt ging sie einkaufen.
'Provided with much money she went shopping.'

Note how flexible languages are, in that the same meaning can be expressed by a variety of syntactical patterns, for instance:

'She waits for his call.'
Sie erwartet seinen Anruf.
Sie wartet auf seinen Anruf.
Sie wartet auf einen Anruf von ihm.
Sein von ihr erwarteter Anruf...
Ihr Warten auf seinen Anruf...
Sie wartet. Er soll sie anrufen.
Sie wartet, denn er soll sie anrufen.
Sie erwartet, daß er sie anruft.
Sie erwartet, daß sie von ihm angerufen wird.
Sie erwartet, von ihm angerufen zu werden.

Because of this flexibility, the structure of all languages is complex. To master any language, in this case German, means to understand the language-inherent combinations of phonological and morphological entities which constitute syntactical patterns. At the same time, the constraints on where such combinations are not possible must also be known.

The teacher of German needs not only this mastery, but also the tools of analysis with which to present such structural patterns to students. The purpose of this book has been to help teachers of German increase their understanding of the German structure.

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Development and Structure of the German Language

Helga Hosford

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The German Teacher's Companion

Development and Structure of the German Language

Workbook and Key

Helga Hosford
University of Montana

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ROWLEY • LONDON • TOKYO
1982

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NEWBURY HOUSE PUBLISHERS, INC.

Language Science
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Language Learning

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Printed in the U.S.A.

First printing: November 1982
5 4 3 2 1

THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION
WORKBOOK
ERRATA

p. 18	1.423	b.	OHG Pl A gesti, MHG Pl N,A geste
p. 25	1.53	a. 9.	hōchgezīt
p. 37	1.91	a. 1.	welches anzeiget
p. 47	2.41	a. 6.	Lette
p. 49	2.431	b. 8.	Augenaufschlag
		c.	/ə/, /ʌ/ and /i̯/
p. 56	2.62	b. 5.	Die s gr chen Gr chen
p. 57	2.64	line 2	äuβerlich
		line 7	übungen
		line 9	delete: war
p. 60	3.13	c. 6.	add: Der Lehrer bat sie, den Aufsatz mit besseren Worten ________.
		7.	beabsichtigte
p. 63	3.134	c.	hängen/hängen
		d. 2.	ihre Hände
		5.	Er schleift mein Messer.
p. 66	3.14	chart	ich: MORPHEME add line below /-ə/ on same level as pres
			du: MORPHEME add line below /-st/ continuing line of imperative
p. 76	3.165	c. 3.	Du muβt dieser Arbeit mehr Zeit...
p. 87	3.19	a. 9.	mit dem Auto gereist
p. 91	3.223	a.	Replace the initial phrases delete: sentence 5.
p. 98	3.2241	b.	Replace the initial prepositional phrases...
p. 105	3.2252	b.	What is the formal relationship between special subjunctive and imperative in English?
p. 112	3.243	b. 7.	Die Rede beruhigte...
p. 119	3.3321	b. 3.	Der Autor schreibt...
p. 129	3.412	9.	Wir standen fünf Stunden...
p. 133	3.424	a. 1.	die Regierung
p. 137	3.429	c. 9.	25 Pfennige
p. 143	4.122	c. 2.	Heute
p. 148	4.141	a. 16.	Bei solch schlecht Wetter...
p. 151	4.144	b. 4.	The new process is...
p. 164	4.1611	a. 5.	Wann hast du...
p. 172	4.211	b. 8.	Er erteilte ihr die Vollmacht...
p. 183	4.421	c. 4.	benannt
	4.422	a. 5.	Lehrerin
p. 208	5.3344	b. 6.	unseres Alters.
p. 218		entry 8	München

KEY

p. 221	1.3	a. 2.	Angles
	1.35	b. 2.	Mittwoch
p. 223	1.41	a. 14.	lassen
	1.422	b. 5.	Elend
p. 230	2.333	a.	Scham-sham
p. 231	2.431	b. 2.	zaitənaingaŋ švaŋkən
p. 233	2.62	2.	ihren /ī/
		6.	brechen /e/ Kekse /ē/ Teller /e/
		8.	hüben /ǖ/ Hügel /ü/
		9.	Hütten /ü/
		10.	erhöht /ȫ/
p. 238	3.141	chart	wir, sie: TENSE add: past in box below pres ihr: TENSE: add: past in box below pres
p. 241	3.171	a. 7.	abgefahren
p. 243	3.19	a. 2.	als auch auf dem Scheiterhaufen verbrannt
p. 249	3.241	a. 9.	mich
p. 250	3.312	b. 7.	Er bemüht sich
p. 251	3.3321	b. 2.	D.Z. durchfuhr d.S.
		6.	Soldaten unsere S.
p. 252		c. 7.	Sie saß noch immer...
	3.3321	b. 3	Sie hat sich über die U.i.m.B. aufgeregt.
p. 254	3.411	a. 4.	unangenehm
	3.412	10.	Sieben Seiten war i.B. lang
p. 257	4.11	b. 3.	auf den Postboten
p. 260	4.144	c. 9.	gewissenhafteste
		10.	berühmteste
p. 263	4.151	b. 4.	Das Auto drehte sich um sich selbst und prallte gegen die Leitplanke.
p. 264	4.1611	c. 10.	... gewöhnen, w. er sich benahm.
p. 267	4.41	a. 3.	... stehlen. 4. Haben sie überhaupt..
p. 270	5.224	a. 4.	... Gefahr. 5. Bei starkem Verkehr fahren wir...

FOREWORD

Discussions about languages can become sterile and lifeless - unless they are applied to the language in question. This WORKBOOK was designed to supplement the analysis contained in THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION by using and practicing the German language.

Common to all exercises and problems contained in the WORKBOOK is the practice and amplification of the structural and lexical items discussed in THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION. The exercises are designed to increase the user's mastery of the German language and to provide insights into its nature and function. Individual exercises are of various types: Some elaborate on certain facts outlined in the COMPANION, others contrast or compare German and English structural characteristics, many summarize related grammatical phenomena, numerous problems are designed to formulate pedagogical approaches and a large number of exercises are designed for the use of the German language. Occasionally some exercises may require the assistance of a dictionary.

The WORKBOOK has the same table of contents as THE GERMAN TEACHER'S COMPANION of which each paragraph is supplemented by at least one, more frequently several exercises or problems. All answers to the exercises and problems can be verified in the KEY.

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CHAPTER ONE

1. ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF GERMAN
1.1 Common Origin of German and English

a. Design a small introductory teaching unit to show your students how many German words they already know, before even having begun the study of German.

____

____

____

b. Evaluate the validiity of asking students to look up in a recent encyclopedia the entries "English Language: History" and "German Language: History."

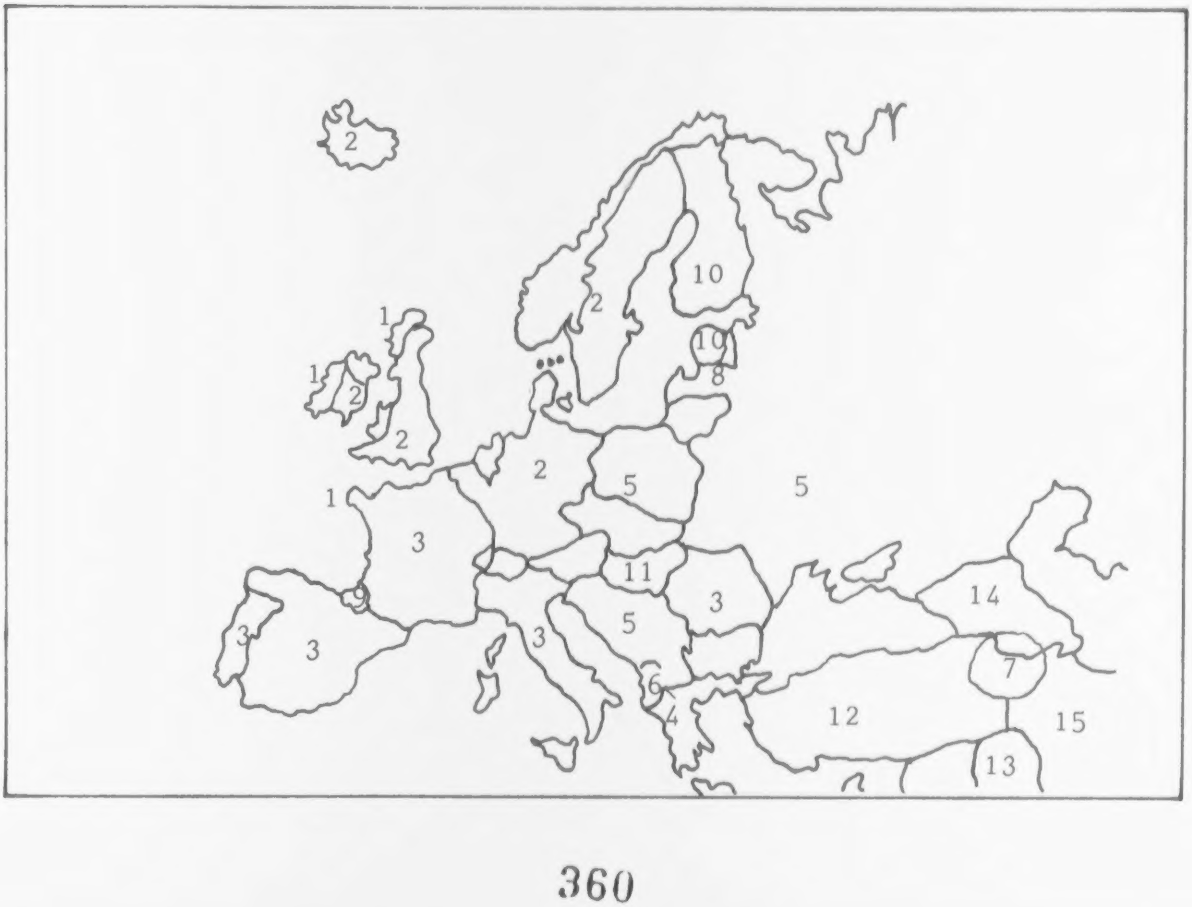
____

____

____

1.2 Indo-European

a. The map below shows the main Indo-European language groups in Europe and the Near East, as well as some non-Indo-European languages. Complete the key on the next page by writing the number of the language branch in the appropriate blanks:



INDO-EUROPEAN		NON-INDO-EUROPEAN	
1. Iranian	_____	10. Finish	_____
2. Armenian	_____	11. Hungarian	_____
3. Albanian	_____	12. Semitic	_____
4. Baltic	_____	13. Altaic	_____
5. Slavic	_____	14. Basque	_____
6. Greek	_____	15. Caucasian	_____
7. Romance	_____		
8. Celtic	_____		
9. Germanic	_____		

b. Below are lists of words from ten Indo-European languages and their reconstructed Indo-European source. Use the blanks to sort out the words into cognate lists:

OLD ENGLISH: dohtor, ēast, fæder, full, hund, mōdor, morðor, sunu, sweostor, Tīw, toþ, widuwe.

NEW HIGH GERMAN: Hund, mord, Mutter, Osten, Schwester, Sohn, Tochter, Vater, voll, Witwe, Zahn, (OHG) Zio.

OLD NORSE: dóttir, faðir, fullr, hundr, morðr, moðir, öxull, sunr, systir, tönn, Týr.

GOTHIC: dauhtar, fadar, fulls, hunds, maurþr, sunus, swistar, tunþus, widuwo.

LATIN: aurōra, canis, dens, Iūppiter, māter, mors, pater, plēnus, soror, vidua.

GREEK: ēōs, huios, kuōn, mētēr, mortos, odontos, patēr, pleres, thygater, Zeus.

RUSSIAN: doč', mat', mjortvyǐ, polnyǐ, sestra, suka 'bitch,' syn, vdova.

LITHUANIAN: aušra, dantis, dievas, dukte, mirtīs, mote 'woman,' pilnas, sesuo, sunus, šuns, (O. Prussian) widdewu.

IRISH: athir, cū, det, dia 'god,' fedb, lan, marb, mathir, suir.

SANSKRIT: çvan-, dant-, duhitar-, dyaus-pitar, martaš-, matar-, pitar-, purna-, sunu-, svasar-, usas, vidhava-.

INDO-EUROPEAN: *aus(t)-, deiwos/dyeu, *dent- /(o)dont-, *dhughəter, *kw(o)n(-to)-/kan-i-, *māter, *m(e)rt(r)-, *pətēr, *pləno-, *sunu-, *swesor-, *widhēwo-.

	'father'	'mother'	'sister'	'son'
OE	____	____	____	____
NHG	____	____	____	____
ON	____	____	____	____
GOT	____		____	____
LAT	____	____	____	
GK	____	____		____
RUSS		____	____	____
LITH		____	____	____
IR	____	____	____	
SKT	____	____	____	____
IE	____	____	____	____

	'daughter'	'widow'	'east'	'full'
OE	____	____	____	____
NHG	____	____	____	____
ON	____		____	____
GOT	____	____		____
LAT		____	____	____
GK	____		____	____
RUSS	____	____		____
LITH	____	____	____	____
IR		____		____
SKT	____	____	____	____
IE	____	____	____	____

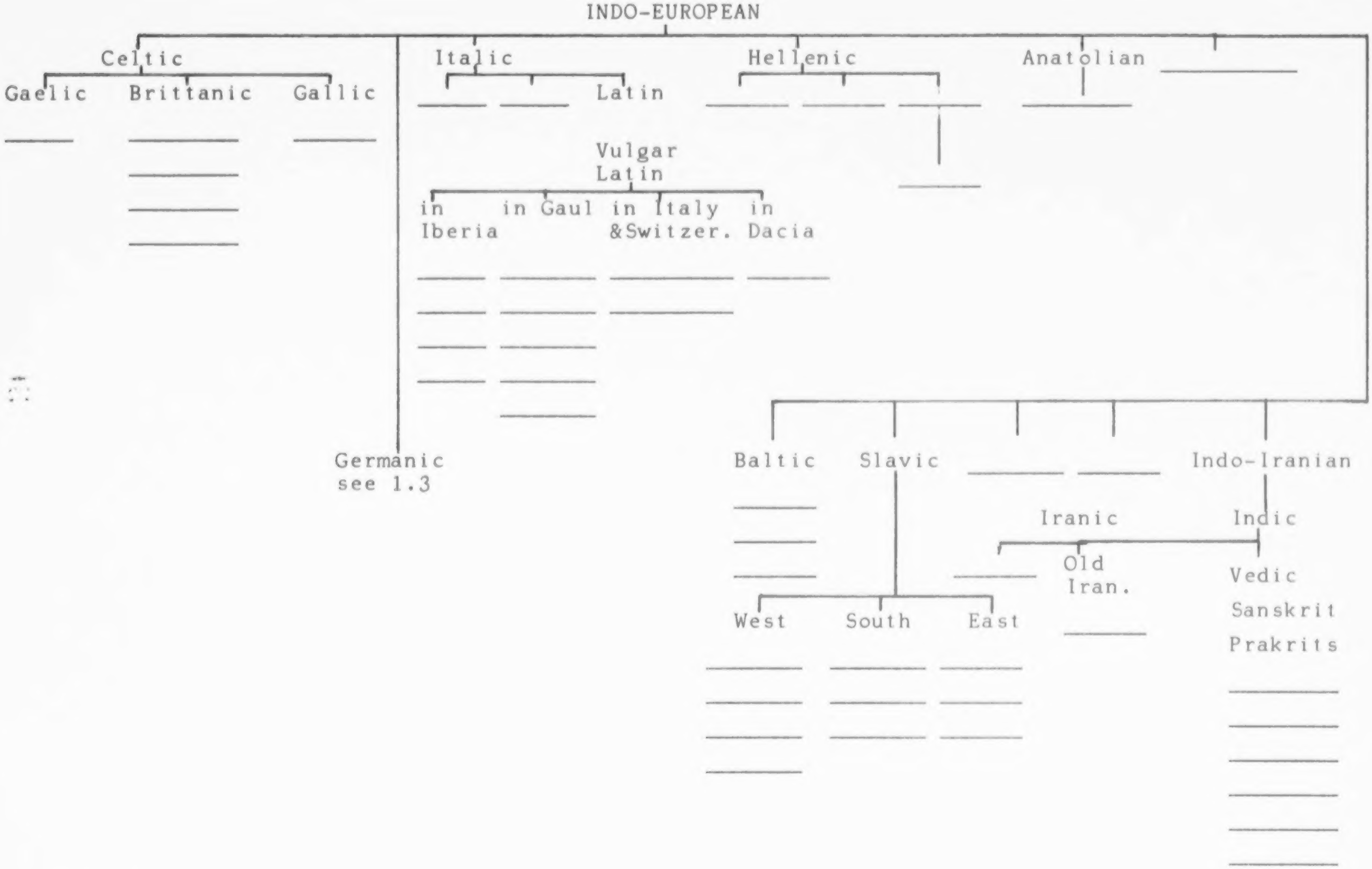
	'hound'	'tooth'	'Sky-father'	'mortal, death'
OE	____	____	____	____
NHG	____	____	____	____
ON	____	____	____	____
GOTH	____	____		____
LAT	____	____	____	____
GK	____	____	____	____
RUSS	____			____
LITH	____	____	____	____
IR	____	____	____	____
SKT	____	____	____	____
IE	____	____	____	____

c. In describing the historical development of a language group, we have recourse to various metaphors or models. One such metaphor is that of a family with the Indo-European language as parent with its descendants. the other metaphor is a botanical one, with the Indo-European stem and its branches. These metaphors are often combined in a family tree model.

Use the languages in the following list to complete the family tree on the next page:

Aeolic
Albanian
Armenian
Avestic
Bengali
Breton
Bulgarian
Byelorussian
Catalan
Cornish
Czech
Doric
French
Galician
Gaulish
Hindi
Hindustani
Hittite
Ionic-Attic
Italian
Lettish
Lithuanian
Manx
Modern Greek
Norman
Oscan
Pali
Persian
Picard
Pictish
Polish
Portuguese
Provençal
Prussian
Rhaeto-Romanic
Romany
Rumanian
Russian
Serbo-Croatian
Slovak
Slovenian
Spanish
Tocharian
Ukrainian
Umbrian
Urdu
Walloon
Welsh
Wendish[1]

[1] Exercises 1.2 a, b, c: Adapted and verbatim exercises reprinted and reproduced by permission of Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc, from PROBLEMS IN THE ORIGINS AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, Second Edition by John Algeo, © 1972 by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.


INDO-EUROPEAN
Celtic
Gaelic
Brittanic
Gallic
Italic
Latin
Vulgar Latin
in Iberia
in Gaul
in Italy &Switzer.
in Dacia
Hellenic
Anatolian
Germanic see 1.3
Baltic
Slavic
West
South
East
Indo-Iranian
Iranic
Indic
Old Iran.
Vedic
Sanskrit
Prakrits

1.3 Germanic

a. What tribes or peoples gave their names to the following regions, concepts, or names:

1. Burgundy ______________________
2. England ______________________
3. Essex ______________________
4. France ______________________
5. Normandy ______________________
6. Lombardy ______________________
7. vandalism ______________________
8. Wendel ______________________

b. Complete the family tree of the Germanic languages on page 7 by placing the following languages in the appropriate blanks:

Afrikaans	English	Icelandic	Old Low Franconian
Alemannic	Flemish	Langobardic	Old Norse
Bavarian	Frankish	Low German	Old Saxon
Burgundian	Frisian	Norwegian	Swedish
Danish	Gothic	Old English	Vandalic
Dutch	High German	Old Frisian	Yiddish

1.31 Germanic Stress Accent

a. Observe commercials that use alliteration, or brand-names, associations, firms, or names used on Citizen Band Radio. Give a few examples:

____

____

b. Find at least ten English and German alliterative idioms.

______________________ ______________________

______________________ ______________________

______________________ ______________________

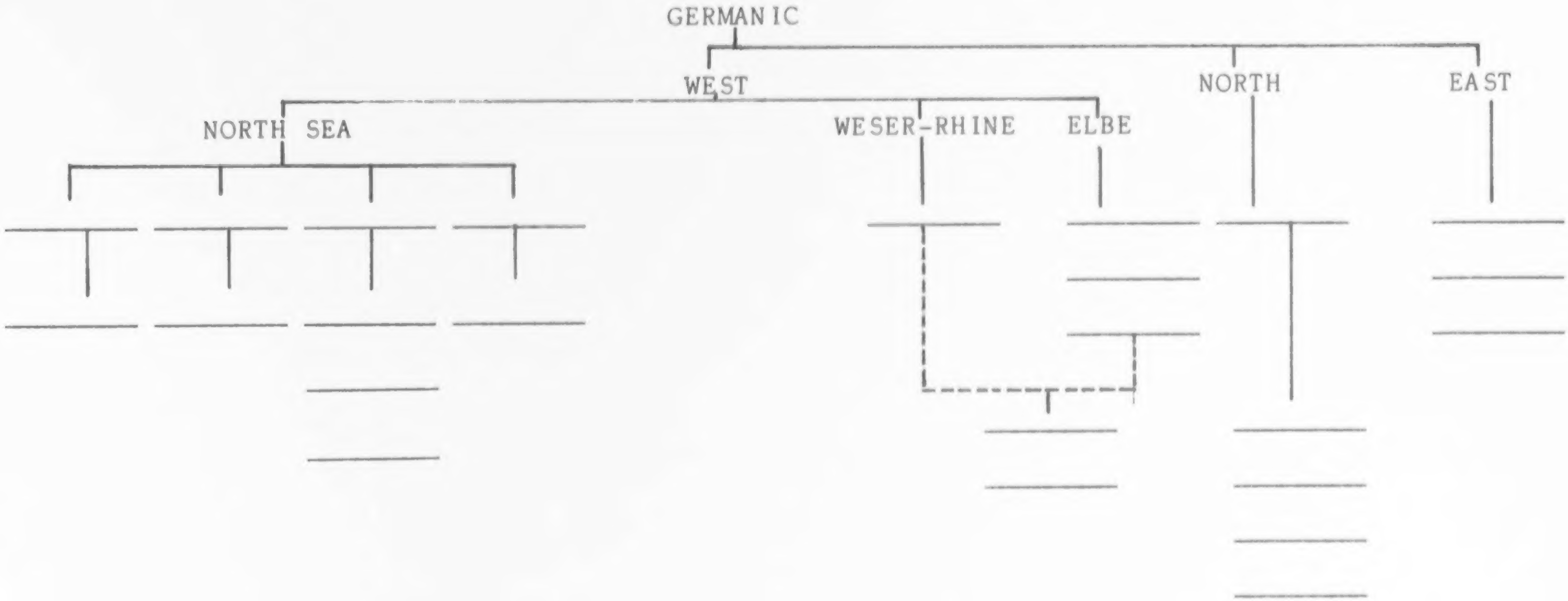
______________________ ______________________

______________________ ______________________

1.32 Germanic Consonant Shift

a. In each of the pairs, seen below, the first item is the reconstructed Indo-European root; the second is the English cognate in which the consonants reflect the effects of the Germanic consonant shift in a regular manner. Complete the English words:

IE	ENGLISH	IE	ENGLISH
1. *bha- 'speak'	____an	5. *de-	____o
2. *dheu- 'flow'	____ew	6. *gel-	____ool
3. *ghans- 'goose'	____oose	7. *pau-	____ew
4. *bend- 'point'	____en	8. *tr-	____rough


GERMANIC
WEST
NORTH
EAST
NORTH SEA
WESER-RHINE
ELBE

9. *kan- 'sing' ____en
10. *angh- 'tight' an____er
11. *bher- ____ear
12. *koimo- ____ome
13. *pā- ____ood
14. *swād- swee____
15. *gl- 'ball' ____lue
16. *dhrēn- ____rone
17. *lab- 'lick' la____
18. *pūlo- 'rotten' ____oul
19. *wadh- 'pledge' we____
20. *wāb- wee____
21. *plōu- ____low
22. *aug- 'increase' e____e
23. *kel- 'cover' ____ell
24. *leb- li____
25. *dem- 'built' ____imber
26. *bhlō- ____loom
27. *dhō- 'put' ____o
28. *tum- 'swollen' ____umb
29. *tong- 'feel' ____an____
30. *pet- 'fly' ____ea____er
31. *treud- 'squeeze' ____rea____
32. *bhreg- ____rea____
33. *bheid- 'split' ____i____e
34. *dhragh- ____ra____
35. *grebh- 'scratch' ____ra____
36. *porko- 'pig' OE__ear____
37. *kwerp- 'turn' w____ar____
38. *ghreib- ____ri____
39. *magh- 'can' OE ma____an
40. *wegh- 'go' OE we____[1]

b. In the words below, the Indo-European stress accent was on some syllable other than the first; therefore, Verner's Law applies. Supply the missing letters:

1. *kaput- Got. hau____iþ 'head' Haupt
2. *plōtu- floo____
3. *konk- han____
4. *wes- we____e
5. *sep(t)m Got. si____un 'seven' sieben
6. *klūto- OE hlū____ 'loud'
7. *dukā- OE to____ian ziehen
8. *sauso- sea____[1]

c. In modern German, a number of doublets with alternations of consonants bear witness to Verner's Law. Supply the missing letters:

1. Riege Rei____e
2. Öse Oh____
3. Knödel Kno____en
4. frieren Fro____t
7. gedeihen gedie____en
8. Schnitt schnei____en
9. ziehen Zu____
10. war gewe____en

[1]Exercises 1.32 a. and b: Adapted and verbatim exercises reprinted and reproduced by permission of Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc, from PROBLEMS IN THE ORIGINS AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, Second Edition by John Algeo, © 1972 by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

5. Kiesen Ku fürst 11. darben dür en
6. verlieren Verlu t 12. nähren gene en

1.33 Germanic Vowels

a. The following English words exhibit loss of nasal before spirant. Give the German cognates:

1. mouth ______ 4. dust ______
2. soft ______ 5. south ______
3. tooth ______ 6. couth ______

b. The vowel pattern of the OHG strong verb class III still exists in modern German. Give four NHG examples:

IIIa ______ ______
______ ______
IIIb ______ ______
______ ______

1.34 Germanic Structural Innovation

Identify the Germanic structural changes in the examples below by placing the number (1, 2 or 3 from below) in the blanks:

(1) two tense verbal system (2) two-fold adjective inflection (3) weak verbs

1. suohu 'I week' sagio 'I perceive'
suohta 'I sought' sagivi 'I perceived' ____/____

2. ther triuwo manno iste fidus servus
triuwer manno fidus servus
'(the) faithful servant' ____

3. zemmu 'I tame' domo 'I tame'
zemmeta 'I tamed' domui 'I tamed' ____/____

4. singt 'he sings' cantat 'he sings'
sang 'he sang' cantabat 'he sang'
cantavit 'he has sung' ____

5. dese guoton friunta illi boni amici
guote friunta boni amici
'(these) good friends' ____

1.35 Germanic Vocabulary

a. Many Germanic names, frequently composed of two words, survive in German and English. Find names that contain at least one of the OHG words below:

OHG	ENGLISH	NAMES
1. adal	'noble'	______
2. aro	'eagle'	______
3. balt	'bold, courageous'	______

4. beraht 'bright' ____
5. brant 'sword' ____
6. fridu 'peace' ____
7. gēr 'javelin' ____
8. gund 'battle' ____
9. harti/herti 'hard, strong' ____
10. haþu 'battle' ____
11. helm 'helmet' ____
12. heri 'army' ____
13. hilt 'battle' ____
14. lint 'shield of linden wood' ____
15. mār 'famous' ____
16. rīh- 'ruler, empire, powerful' ____
17. runa 'rune' ____
18. wīg 'battle' ____
19. will 'will' ____
20. wīn 'friend' ____

b. The Romans named the days of the week for their gods that were, in part, represented by planets, and for the moon and the sun. The Germanic gods were Wotan (Wodan, Odin), Tio (Ziu, Teiwa, Tingus), Thor (Donar), and Freia.

1. Determine the Germanic origin of the English and German names for the days of the week.

____
____
____
____
____

2. Where does Mittwoch, as opposed to English 'Wednesday,' come from?

____

3. Samstag came into German through the Greek mission. Where is it used?

____

1.4 Old Saxon and Old High German

Match the geographical areas of Germany with the dialects of origin and the modern German dialects:

(1) Northern Germany	(3) Middle Germany	(5) Southern Germany
(2) Old Saxon	(4) Middle German	(6) Upper German

1. Alemannic	____ ____		5. Moselle Franconian	____ ____
2. Bavarian	____ ____		6. Low German	____ ____
3. East Franconian	____ ____		7. Rhenish Franconian	____ ____
4. Franconian	____ ____		8. Ripuarian	____ ____

1.41 Old Saxon

To illustrate the similarity between Old English and Old Saxon, some compound nouns in both languages are given below.

a. Give an approximate English translation:

	OLD ENGLISH	OLD SAXON	NHG	ENGLISH
1.	æþel-cyning	aðal-kuning	Edelkönig	____________
2.	eorð-rīce	erð-rīki	Erdreich	____________
3.	wine-trēow	wini-treuwa	Freundestreue	____________
4.	freodo-wær	fridu-wāra	Friedenswahrer	____________
5.	heals-myne	hals-meni	Halsband	____________
6.	heofod-wund	hōbiþ-wunda	Hauptwunde	____________
7.	ceap-steta	kōp-steti	Kaufstätte	____________
8.	lād-weorc	lēd-werc	Leidwerk	____________
9.	hearm-cwiðe	harm-quiði	Schmährede	____________
10.	sōð-spell	soð-spell	Wahrrede	____________

b. Which of the compound words exist in

NHG ____________________

NE ____________________

c. Which of the words in the first part of the above compound nouns exist in

NHG ____________________

NE ____________________

d. What words in the second part of the compounds exist in

NHG ____________________

NE ____________________

e. Compare the capacity of compounding in German and English on the basis of the evidence provided above.

____

____

f. Which of the languages is more conservative? ____________

1.42 Old High German

a. Deliberate on the difficulties of adapting a writing system to a language which previously had none.

____

____

b. Many translations from Latin to Old High German were interlinear. What influence may this practice have had on German syntax?

____

____

1.421 Old High German Consonant Shift

a. Complete the cognates below according to the rules of the OHG consonant shift and of d>t, þ>d:

1. better be___er
2. bite bei___en
3. both bei___e
4. bread Bro___
5. brother ___ru___er
6. dead ___o___
7. deed ___a___
8. door ___ür
9. dream ___raum
10. foot ___u___
11. grip grei___en
12. heart Her___
13. hearth Her___
14. let la___en
15. pan ___anne
16. pepper ___e___er
17. penny ___ennig
18. plant ___lan___e
19. plough ___lug
20. pole ___ahl
21. shoot schie___en
22. tame ___ahm
23. thank ___ank
24. the ___ie
25. thou ___u
26. thumb ___aumen
27. tide ___ei___
28. to ___u
29. token ___ei___en
30. weapon Wa___en[1]

b. Complete the English words:

1. bear___ Bart
2. bi___ bieten
3. boo___ Buch
4. ___istle Distel
5. ___rong Drang
6. fea___er Feder
7. floo___ Flut
8. ha___e hassen[1]

---

[1]Examples taken from PROBLEMS IN THE ORIGINS AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, Second Edition by John Algeo, copyright © 1972 by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., adapted by permission of the publisher.

9.	ho___e	hoffen	15.	re___on	rechnen
10.	coo___	kochen	16.	sha___e	schaffen
11.	la___e	Lache	17.	shi___	Schiff
12.	ma___e	machen	18.	___oll	Zoll
13.	o___en	offen	19.	___ongue	Zunge
14.	___a___	Pfad	20.	___wo	zwei

c. Some cognates have assumed divergent meanings in English and German. Complete the words and give their meanings:

	ENGLISH	MEANING	GERMAN	MEANING
1.	timber	______	___immer	______
2.	dish	______	___isch	______
3.	sake	______	Sa___e	______
4.	town	______	___aun	______
5.	plight	______	___li___t	______
6.	fret	______	fre___en	______
7.	wreath	______	Ra___	______
8.	gate	______	Ga___e	______
9.	team	______	___aum	______
10.	doughty	______	___ü___tig	______
11.	write	______	rei___en	______
12.	dreary	______	___raurig	______
13.	ordeal	______	Ur___eil	______
14.	dapper	______	___a___er	______
15.	tide	______	___ei___	______

d. The chart below gives a summary of the development of some consonants from IE to OHG. Place the consonants in the appropriate spaces under Germanic and OHG consonants:

INDO-EUROPEAN		GERMANIC		OLD HIGH GERMAN	
EXAMPLE	CONSON	EXAMPLE	CONSON	EXAMPLE	CONSON
*bendh	*b	pound		pfund	
*(slabn-)		sleep		slaffen	
*del	*d	tell		zellen	
*ed-		eat		ezzan	
*gno-	*g	OE kunnan		chunnan	
*ag-		make		mahhōn	
*ghebh-	*bh	Gmc geban		geban	
*dhragh-	*dh	OE dragan		tragan	
*ghans-	*gh	goose		gans	
*pod-	*p	foot		fuoz	
*treyes-	*t	three		drei	
*kmt-	*k	hund(red)		hund-	

e. Complete the following cognates, showing the correspondence between English 'v, f' and NHG b in intervocalic and final position:

ENGLISH	GERMAN	ENGLISH	GERMAN
1. raven	Ra___e	6. sho___e	schieben
2. give	ge___en	7. li___e	leben
3. have	ha___en	8. wea___e	weben
4. strive	stre___en	9. sie___e	Sieb
5. loaf	Lai___	10. hea___e	heben

f. Some of these cognates underwent semantic changes. Give the meanings of the following words:

ENGLISH	MEANING	GERMAN	MEANING
1. stove	______	Stu___e	______
2. wife	______	Wei___	______
3. drive	______	trei___en	______
4. knave	______	Kna___e	______
5. shave	______	scha___en	______
6. starve	______	ster___en	______

1.422 Old High German Vowels

a. Since umlaut was a West and North Germanic tendency, reflexes of it also exist in modern English. Complete the English word pairs:

1. strong ____________
2. OE mōt 'get together' to ____________
3. gold ____________
4. OE dōm 'judgment' to ____________
5. older ____________
6. ____________ brethren
7. ____________ vixen
8. ____________ feet
9. ____________ mice
10. ____________ length

b. In OHG and MHG, the umlaut of Gmc *a>e (Got. gasteis, OHG gesti) and from Gmc *e>i (OHG geben, gibit) were expressed in writing. A later spelling reform introduced the spelling <ä> for the umlaut of Gmc *a. A few words, however, were overlooked and are still spelled with <e>.

1. schnell zur Hand — beh__nde
2. Überschwang — überschw__nglich
3. Adel — __del
4. alt — __ltern
5. aus dem Land — el__nd
6. fahren — f__rtig
7. Hag — Geh__ge

c. Not only cognates which reflect consonantal correspondences in English and German, but also cognates which illustrate regular, if different, developments of vowels are easy to find and helpful to use. Complete the words:

Modern German <ei> /ai/ is equivalent to modern English /ai/ or /ō/.

	ENGLISH	GERMAN		ENGLISH	GERMAN
1.	ice	___s	7.	___k	Eiche
2.	bite	b___ßen	8.	g___t	Geiß
3.	pipe	Pf___fe	9.	cl___the	Kleid
4.	smite	schm___ßen	10.	h___me	Heim
5.	wide	w___t	11.	st___ne	Stein
6.	ride	r___ten	12.	al___ne	allein

Modern German <ie> /ī/ corresponds with English /ī/:

13. thief	D___b	18. b___r	Bier
14. freeze	fr___ren	19. f___	Vieh
15. Greek	Gr___che	20. s___ge	Sieg
16. seal	S___gel	21. z___l	Ziel
17. keel	K___l	22. sm___r	schmieren

Since English unrounded those vowels that had resulted from umlaut, many cognates show German /ü/ and /ö/ and English the unrounded counterpart /i/ and /e/.

23. mint	M___nze	28. tw___lve	zwölf
24. kiss	k___ssen	29. th___n	dünn
25. hell	H___lle	30. h___r	hören
26. sin	S___nde	31. f___l	fühlen
27. keen	k___hn	32. sw___r	schwören

1.423 Old High German Structure

a. Observe the paradigm of OHG geban 'to give' and supply the NHG paradigm:

OHG	NHG
Inf.: geban	________________
Pres. indicative:	
gibu	ich ________________
gibis(t)	du ________________
gibit	er ________________
gebamēs	wir ________________
gebet	ihr ________________
gebent	sie ________________
Special Subj:	
gebe	ich ________________
gebes(t)	du ________________
gebet	er ________________
gebēm	wir ________________
gebēt	ihr ________________
gebēn	sie ________________
Past indicative:	
gab	ich ________________
gābi	du ________________
gab	er ________________
gābumēs	wir ________________
gābut	ihr ________________

gābun	sie ________
General Subj:	
gābi	ich ________
gābīs(t)	du ________
gābi	er ________
gābīm	wir ________
gābīt	ihr ________
gābīn	sie ________
Pres. participle:	
gebanti	________
Past participle:	
gigeban	________

1. In the du-form of the present indicative, only the ending -is is historical. The -t was probably added as an enclitic: gibis tu > gibst du. How did the -st arise in the simple past and in the subjunctives?

   ____

2. Apocope (<Greek apokopē 'cutting off') is the loss of a final syllable or sound. Indicate in what instances apocope occurred from the OHG to the NHG forms of geben:

   ______ ______ ______

3. Synocope (<Greek synkopē 'cutting off together') is the loss of a medial sound. In which forms did this happen?

   ______ ______ ______

4. Analogy (<Greek analogia 'proportion') is the process by which a less frequent form is replaced by a more frequent form. In what instance was the vowel length in the paradigm leveled through analogy?

   ____

5. In what instances and why do some NHG forms show umlaut?

   ____

6. The weakening of unstressed syllables changed each vowel in unstressed syllables to /ə/. Supply the OHG vowels from the paradigm:

OHG	___	___	___	___	___
NHG	/ə/				

b. Below are paradigms of some OHG and MHG nouns. Supply the NHG forms:

der-NOUNS

		OHG	MHG	NHG	OHG	MHG	NHG
Sg	N	tag	tac		gast	gast	
	A	tag	tac		gast	gast	
	D	tage	tage		gaste	gaste	
	G	tages	tages		gastes	gastes	
Pl	N	taga	tage		gesti	gestes	
	A	taga	tage		gestin	gesten	
	D	tagun	tagen		gestin	gesten	
	G	tago	tage		gestio	geste	

der-NOUN / das-NOUN

		OHG	MHG	NHG	OHG	MHG	NHG
Sg	N	boto	bote		lamb	lamp	
	A	boton	boten		lamb	lamp	
	D	boten	boten		lambe	lambe	
	G	boten	boten		lambes	lambes	
Pl	N	boton	boten		lembir	lember	
	A	boton	boten		lembir	lember	
	D	botōn	boten		lembiron	lembern	
	G	botōno	boten		lembiro	lember	

die-NOUNS

		OHG	MHG	NHG	OHG	MHG	NHG
Sg	N	muoter	muoter		zunga	zunge	
	A	muoter	muoter		zungūn	zungen	
	D	muoter	muoter		zungūn	zungen	
	G	muoter	muoter		zungūn	zungen	
Pl	N	muoter	müeter		zungūn	zungen	
	A	muoter	müeter		zungūn	zungen	
	D	muoterum	müetern		zungōm	zungen	
	G	muotero	müeter		zungōno	zungen	

1. NHG has four plural morphemes: /-(ə)n/, /-(¨)-ə/, /-¨-ər/, /-(¨)-/. Determine the origin of the NHG plural morphemes by supplying the OHG example(s) from which they arose:

/-(ə)n/ ________________ ________________

/-(¨)-ə/ ________________ ________________

/-¨-ər/ ________________

/-(¨)-/ ____________________

2. The NHG der-nouns which have the plural morpheme /-(ə)n/ are sometimes called "weak" nouns, as opposed to those with other plural morphemes and the genitive /-s/. What is the relevance of this distinction in NHG?

____

3. What is the origin of the genitive singular morpheme /-ns/ in der-nouns such as Friede, Funke, Glaube, etc. and one das-noun, Herz?

____

1.424 Old High German Vocabulary

a. Loan translations were not easy to formulate. Fifteen attempts at translating Latin resurrectio into OHG are documented:

urstant	urstendidi	uferstende
urrist	urstōdali	ūferstēunge
urstendī	arstantnessi	uferstandenkeit
urrestī	erstantnunga	uferstendnisse
urstendida	irstandinī	uferstandunge

What is the NHG word? ____________________

b. Match the following German and English cognates, providing an insight into their etymology:

	GERMAN		ENGLISH	
1.	Wand	'wall'	knife	______
2.	Messer	'knife'	tree	______
3.	Schemel	'stool'	to bid	______
4.	Fürst	'prince'	thatch	______
5.	taufen	'baptize'	beech	______
6.	kneifen	'pinch'	to answer	______
7.	Zaum	'bridle, rein'	first	______
8.	beten	'pray'	team	______
9.	Reißbrett	'drawing board'	to dip	______
10.	Holunder	'elderberry tree'	stone for a meal	______
11.	schwören	'give an oath'	tint	______
12.	Dach	'roof'	to write	______
13.	Gabel	'fork'	to wind, weave	______
14.	Buch	'book'	gable	______
15.	Tinte	'ink'	shambles	______

1.5 Middle High German

The Middle High German language was beautiful, and in general not very difficult to read and understand. Compare the MHG and NHG versions of a song written around 1150:

MHG	NHG
Dū bist mīn, ich bin dīn:	Du bist mein, ich bin dein,
des solt dū gewis sīn.	dessen sollst du gewiß sein.
Dū bist beslossen	Du bist verschlossen
in mīnem herzen	in meinem Herzen,
vlorn ist daz slüzzelīn:	verloren ist das Schlüsselchen.
dū muost och immer darinne sīn.	Du mußt auch immer darin bleiben.

Vowels are short unless they are marked for length, uo, ie, ei, üe are diphthongs, MHG w is pronounced like English 'w', zz after vowels is NHG ss or ß.

Read the text aloud.

1.51 Middle High German Sounds

a. How is the final hardening of voiced stops (e Auslautverhärtung) taught in elementary German classes?

____

b. MHG /w/ changed to (1) /v/
(2) u after ā
(3) b after l, r
(4) Ø after long vowels and diphthongs

Complete the words below and identify the changes by writing the number into the space:

1. vrouwe	Fr____	____	5. weit	____eit	____
2. swalwe	Sch____	__/__	6. būwen	b____en	____
3. pfāwe	Pf____	____	7. brāwe	Br____e	____
4. triuwe	Tr____	____	8. iuwer	e____er	____

c. The changes in vowel quality from MHG to NHG can be summarized as follows:

	MHG	NHG		MHG	NHG
(1) Diphthongization:	ī >	ei	(4) Unrounding:	ü >	i
	ū >	au		ö >	e
	iu >	eu/äu		öu >	ei
(2) Monophthongization:	ie >	ī	(5) Rounding	i >	ü
	uo >	ū		e >	ö
(3) Lowering:	ü >	ö		a >	o
	u >	o			

Complete the words below and indicate which change the example presented by filling the number from above in the blanks:

1. līp	L ___ b	____	13. mūs	M ___ s	____
2. schepfen	sch ___ pfen	____	14. sprützen	spr ___ tzen	____
3. būwen	b ___ en	____	15. buoch	B ___ ch	____
4. bülez	P ___ lz	____	16. liet	L ___ d	____
5. hiuser	H ___ ser	____	17. swern	schw ___ ren	____
6. zwelf	zw ___ lf	____	18. sunne	S ___ ne	____
7. guot	g ___ t	____	19. leffel	L ___ ffel	____
8. nunne	N ___ nne	____	20. āne	___ hne	____
9. wā	w ___	____	21. swīn	Schw ___ n	____
10. güete	G ___ te	____	22. müede	m ___ de	____
11. sumer	S ___ mmer	____	23. ströufen	str ___ fen	____
12. helle	H ___ lle	____	24. mügen	m ___ gen	____

d. Changes in vowel quantity from MHG to NHG occurred as following:

Lengthening: (1) in open syllables
(2) in closed syllables by analogy to inflected forms
(3) before r (+ dental consonant)

Shortening: (4) before consonant clusters
(5) in compound words
(6) before -en, -el, -er in the following syllable.

Complete the words below and indicate which change (using the numbers from above) the example illustrates:

1. herre	H ___ rr	____	10. muoter	M ___ tter	____
2. stube	St ___ be	____	11. wec	W ___ g	____
3. tür	T ___ r	____	12. lērche	L ___ rche	____
4. gienc	g ___ ng	____	13. ir	___ hr	____
5. ligen	l ___ gen	____	14. lāzen	l ___ ssen	____
6. Viertel	V ___ rtel	____	15. vart	F ___ hrt	____
7. geben	g ___ ben	____	16. jāmer	J ___ mmer	____
8. erde	___ rde	____	17. lieht	L ___ cht	____
9. brāhte	br ___ chte	____	18. sagen	s ___ gen	____

e. The following chart summarizes the most important vowel changes from Germanic to NHG, disregarding some conditional changes.

1. Complete the chart by filling in the appropriate Gmc, OHG, and with indication of quantity (i.e. /i/ or /ī/):

GERMANIC		OLD HIGH GERMAN		NEW HIGH GERMAN		
Gothic Example	Vowel	Example	Vowel	Example	Vowel	
fisk		fisc		Fisch		(1)
(itan)	*e	ezzan		essen		(2)
arks		acker		Acker		(3)
				Äcker		(4)
hunt		hunt		Hund		(5)
				Hündin		(6)
wulfs		wolf		Wolf		(7)
				Wölfe		(8)
(steigan)	*ī	stīgan		steigen		(9)
(lailōt)	*ē	liez		ließ		(10)
(gadēþs)		tāt		Tat		(11)
				Täter		(12)
fōr		fuor		fuhr		(13)
				führe		(14)
mūs		mūs		Maus		(15)
				Mäuse		(16)
(biugan)	*eu	biugit		beugt		(17)
		beogan		biegen		(18)
maiza		mēr		mehr		(19)
dails		teil		teil		(20)
rauþs		rōt		rot		(21)
				Röte		(22)
haubiþ		houbet		Haupt		(23)
				Häupter		(24

2. Of the NHG vowels you just entered in the chart, four vowels appear twice. Indicate the vowels and their number:

_____( )&( ), _____( )&( ),

_____( )&( ), _____( )&( ).

3. Three vowels represent the same pronunciation in two instances and can therefore be deleted once:

_____( )&( ); _____( ) & _____( );

_____( ),( ) & _____( ).

4. Disregarding /ə/, which occurs only in unstressed syllables, and disregarding one of the vowels that appeared twice, NHG has a total of _____ vowel phonemes of which _____ are short, _____ are long, and _____ are diphthongs.

5. Which NHG examples and numbers represent umlaut?

_____( ), _____( ), _____( ), _____ ( ),

_____( ), _____( ), _____( ), _____ ( ).

6. Which numbers represent the result of the

NHG monophthongization: ( ), ( ), ( ).

NHG diphthongization: ( ), ( ), ( ).

1.52 Middle High German Structure

a. In the late MHG period and subsequent centuries, the distinction between the singular and plural past of strong verbs was leveled. Consider the first five classes of strong verbs in MHG and indicate from which of the stems the NHG preterite was taken:

	INFIN	PAST Sg	Pl	NHG PAST	MHG STEM
I.	rīten	reit	riten	_____	_____
II.	biten	bōt	buten	_____	_____
IIIa.	binden	band	bunden	_____	_____
IIIb.	helfen	half	hulfen	_____	_____
IV.	nemen	nam	nāmen	_____	_____
V.	geben	gap	gaben	_____	_____

b. In many textbooks of elementary German, the verbs with unmutation (Rückumlaut), brennen, nennen, rennen, kennen, senden and wenden, are classified together with bringen and denken as "mixed verbs" or "weak-strong verbs" or "hybrid verbs."

1. Is such a classification of these verbs historically justified?

_____

2. Is such a classification pedagogically practical?

_____

3. Some textbooks also add the modal verbs können, dürfen, müssen, sollen, wollen and mögen to the class of mixed verbs. Is this

approach pedagogically practical? Why/why not?

____

____

c. A number of NHG nouns have a different meaning when the gender differs. Give the gender of the nouns below:

1.	____	Band	'ribbon'	____	Band	'volume' (book)
2.	____	Bauer	'farmer'	____	Bauer	'bird cage'
3.	____	Bund	'federation'	____	Bund	'bundle'
4.	____	Erbe	'inheritance'	____	Erbe	'heir'
5.	____	Flur	'topography'	____	Flur	'corridor, hall'
6.	____	Gefallen	'joy'	____	Gefallen	'favor'
7.	____	Hut	'protection'	____	Hut	'hat'
8.	____	Junge	'boy'	____	Junge	'baby animal'
9.	____	Kristall	'glass'	____	Kristall	'crystal'
10.	____	Kunde	'news'	____	Kunde	'customer, client'
11.	____	Schild	'sign'	____	Schild	'shield, protection'
12.	____	See	'lake'	____	See	'ocean'
13.	____	Steuer	'steering'	____	Steuer	'tax'
14.	____	Weise	'melody'	____	Weise	'wise man'

d. Another group of homonyms are historically unrelated and have different meanings and genders. Indicate the gender:

1.	____	Kiefer	'pine tree'	____	Kiefer	'jaw'
2.	____	Leiter	'leader'	____	Leiter	'ladder'
3.	____	Mark	'currency'	____	Mark	'marrow'
4.	____	Reis	'rice'	____	Reis	'twig'
5.	____	Tau	'dew'	____	Tau	'heavy rope'
6.	____	Taube	'pidgeon'	____	Taube	'deaf person'
7.	____	Tor	'silly person'	____	Tor	'large door, gate'

1.53 Middle High German Vocabulary

a. Many MHG words have acquired different meanings in NHG. Supply the NHG meaning:

1.	hell	'clear sounding'	hell	____________
2.	snel	'courageous, bold'	schnell	____________
3.	alwære	'very true'	albern	____________
4.	getregede	'all that is worn or carried'	Getreide	____________
5.	līh	'flesh, living being'	Leiche	____________

6.	edele	'of noble birth'	edel	________
7.	dierne	'girl'	Dirne	________
8.	vrevele	'bold' (adj)	Frevel	________
9.	hōchgēzit	'festival'	Hochzeit	________
10.	arebeit	'worry, hardship'	Arbeit	________
11.	dicke	'often' (adv)	dick	________
12.	balt	'courageous' (adj)	bald (adv)	________
13.	sleht	'simple'	schlecht	________
14.	ervinden	'find out, hear'	erfinden	________
15.	bescheiden	'finformed, wise'	bescheiden	________
16.	milte	'generous'	milde	________
17.	veige	'doomed by fate'	feige	________
18.	faul	'foul, rotten'	faul	________
19.	list	'wisdom, knowledge'	List	________
20.	ernern	'save, rescue'	ernähren	________

b. A great number of the loan translations created by the mystics have survived in modern German. Match the NHG with the Latin words from which they were translated and cognates of which exist in modern English:

	NHG	LATIN	
1.	Empfang	unitas	________
2.	Zeitlichkeit	facultas (adj)	________
3.	unbegreiflich	entitas	________
4.	Eindruck	acceptio	________
5.	Demut	visio	________
6.	Größe	quantitas	________
7.	Wesen	temporalitas	________
8.	Anschauung	impressio	________
9.	Einigkeit, Einheit	humilitas	________
10.	möglich	ineffabilis (adj)	________
11.	unaussprechlich	differentia	________
12.	Unterschied	incomprehensibilis (adj)	________

c. Some Latin words were borrowed in their Latin form, but their suffixes were slightly altered. What are the English and German forms?

	LATIN	ENGLISH	ENGLISH EXAMPLE	GERMAN	GERMAN EXAMPLE
1.	-tas	________	________	________	________
2.	-tio	________	________	________	________
3.	-(n)tia	________	________	________	________
4.	-io	________	________	________	________

5. -or _____ _____ _____ _____
6. -um _____ _____ _____ _____

1.6 Early New High German

a. To illustrate the inconsistent spelling of Early New High German, an excerpt from the ban pronounced by Emperor Charles V against Franz von Sickingen on October 20, 1522 is given below. The document was written in Nürnberg.

"...So verkundē vn̄ denuciiern wir euch hiermit denselben Frantzen von Sigkingen als vnsern, vnd des Reichs erklerten vnd offen achter. Vnd gebieten darauff Euch allen vnd yedem besunder, von Roͤmischer Kayserlicher macht, mit disem vnserm offenbrieff ernstlich, vnd wollē, das ir denselben von Sigkingen, als vnd fuͤr vnsern vnd des Reichsoffenbarē achter haltet, vnd in ewrn Furstenthumben, Landen, herrschaften, Sloβsen, Steten, Mergkten, Dorffern, Gerichten, gepieten, oder behausungē furohin nit einlasset, enthaltet, beherberget, hofet, etzet, drenket, furschiebet, durchslaiffet, mit kaufen, verkaufen, oder in ander weg keinerley gemeinschaft mit jme habent, noch den ewrn zethun gestattet, in keyn weise noch wege..."

1. What does the slash over some final letters mean _____/_____
2. Find variant spellings of the same sound:

   ei _____

   ie _____

   eu _____

   i _____

   z _____
3. Is the umlaut indicated consistently?

   _____
4. Find instances of consonant accumulation:

   _____
5. Are nouns consistently capitalized?

   _____

b. The printers' languages were highly diverse. Compare the examples:

Köln, 1499: Koelhoffsche Chronic:

"Hie is zo mirken vlislich, dat in den lesten ziden as die liefde ind die vuirichkeit der minschen sere verloschen is of bevlekt, un mit idel gloria, nu mit giricheit, nu mit traicheit etc. die sonderlichen groislich zu straifen is in den geistlichen, die vil me wachen..."

Leipzig, 1506: Leipziger Kleiderordung:

"Nach dem in dieser stadt vermargkt, gesehen, vnd oͤffentlich bfunden ist, das sich gemeine buͤrger, auch

handwergs lewte, vnd sunderlich ire weyber kinder vnd gesinde, hantwergβgesellen, knecht vnd meyde, auch ander inwoner koͤstlicher tracht an smugke cleynoten vnd cleyderen...sich geflissen..."

Ulm, 1476/80: <u>Fabel</u> by Heinrich Steinhöwel:

"...Ain vatter het dry sün. Als er aber gestarb/ verlieβ er inen ze erb ainen pirenboum/ain bock und ain mül. Die sün wurdent unains in der tailung des erbs und kamen für den richter..."

1. In the text from Köln, there are instances of unshifted Gmc *<u>t</u> and *<u>d</u>. Give the words:

   ____

2. How are /e/ and /ā/ spelled?

   ____

3. In what words are final consonants missing?

   ____

4. In the text from Leipzig, Upper German influences can be detected:

   apocope: ______________ syncope: ______________

5. In the text from Ulm, is <u>wurdent</u> conservative or innovative?

   ____

6. What vocalic development has not taken place in <u>sün</u>?

   ____

7. Give examples of apocope in the text from Ulm:

   ____

1.61 Rise of the Standard Language

a. To illustrate Luther's skill in translating, a paragraph from Johann Mentel's bible of 1466 and the same text from Luther's translation of 1545 are given below (Phil. 2:5-9):

Mentel, 1466:

"Wann ditz entphint in euch: das auch in ihesu christo. Wie das er was in dem bilde gotz er masst nit den raube wesent sich geleich got: wann er verüppigt sich selber er nam an sich das bilde des knechts er ist gemacht in die gleichsam der mann; und ist funden in der wandelung als ein man. er gedemtiügt sich selber er ist gemacht gehorsam got dem vatter untz an den tod: wann untz an den tode des kreutzes."

Luther, 1545:

"Ein jeglicher sei gesinnet, wie Ihesus Christus auch war. Welcher, ob er wol in göttlicher gestalt war, hielt ers nicht fur einen raub, Gotte gleich sein.

Sondern aüssert sich selbs, und nam Knechtsgestalt an, ward gleich wie ein ander Mensch, und an geberden als ein Mensch erfunden. Ernidriget sich selbs, und ward gehorsam bis zum Tode, ja bis zum tode am Creutz.

What types of devices make Luther's translation fluid and clear?

____

____

____

b. Luther introduced many words from Low German. Some of them replaced the High German words completely; some synomyms coexist as regionalisms, and some changed their meanings, so that they are no longer synonyms.
Give the English meaning of the words below and indicate whether or not (1) one of the pairs died out, (2) remains as regionalism, (3) both exist with minor change of meaning:

1.	fett	________	feist	________	____
2.	schelten	________	strafen	________	____
3.	Splitter	________	Spreiß	________	____
4.	Gewand	________	Kleid	________	____
5.	Lefze	________	Lippe	________	____
6.	Ziege	________	Geiß	________	____
7.	Pein	________	Qual	________	____
8.	Pfuhl	________	Teich	________	____
9.	Gestade	________	Ufer	________	____
10.	Gebrechen	________	Gebresten	________	____
11.	Hafen	________	Topf	________	____
12.	Gleisner	________	Heuchler	________	____

1.62 Early New High German Syntax

a. To show the loss of the genitive and the means by which it is replaced, rewrite the sentences in modern German and indicate the syntactic structure which is used:

1. Gebraucht der Zeit! (Goethe)

   ________________________ ________________

2. Vergiß der Qual (Uhland)

   ________________________ ________________

3. Eines Gesprächs genießen (Ranke)

   ________________________ ________________

4. ...vergaß ihrer ganz (Fontane)

   ________________________ ________________

5. ...des Vaters Mord zu strafen (Schlegel)

b. The cases required by certain prepositions were fluid and became stabilized only relatively recently. Use the modern German cases when rewriting the following sentences:

1. Ob meines wohlgelungenen Meisterwerks (Schiller) (ob=über)

2. Ich bitte mich bei Sie zu Gast (Goethe)

3. ...ist ein Himmel gegen meiner Qual (Goethe)

4. Ohne ihrem Lysias (Weise)

5. Seit des Ungewitters (Opitz)

6. ...sich neben ihr zu stellen (Lessing)

7. Welche auf ihrem Rufe halten (Gotthelf)

8. Halten Sie sich an Ihrem Trost (Lessing)

9. Sie wollte das Mädchen...in das Nebenzimmer sitzen lassen (Goethe)

10. Dein holdes Köpfchen wird an meine Schulter lehnen (Heine)

1.63 Early New High German Vocabulary

a. Translate the following compound words coined by Luther into English and note how many cannot be rendered by an English compound:

1. Gottesfurcht
2. Wiedergeburt
3. Götzentempel
4. Morgenland
5. Goldklumpen
6. Feuereifer
7. Lästermaul
8. Mördergrube
9. Denkzettel
10. Feuertaufe

11. wetterwendisch ____________________

12. gichtbrüchig ____________________

b. Other expressions used by Luther have become idiomatic, but are rarely recognized as biblical coinages. What are the English equivalents?

1. wie Sand am Meer ____________________

2. die himmlischen Heerscharen ____________________

3. das Dichten und Trachten ____________________

4. die verbotene Frucht ____________________

5. ein Dorn im Auge ____________________

6. Krethi und Plethi ____________________

7. Wolf im Schafspelz ____________________

8. in den Wind reden ____________________

9. ein Buch mit sieben Siegeln ____________________

10. der Stein des Anstoßes ____________________

1.7 New High German

a. Italian furnished not only vocabulary of banking and commerce, but also the vocabulary of music. In Italy, the art of opera and oratorio had developed; the first opera was performed in 1594. In Germany, the first opera was staged in 1627 with a translation by Martin Opitz and new music by Heinrich Schütz. Many musical terms are from Italian; give some examples below:

____

____

b. Through the efforts of the Sprachgesellschaften and subsequent puristic efforts, many foreign words and their German translations exist side by side. Give the appropriate equivalents of the following:

	GERMAN TRANSLATION	FOREIGN WORD
1.	e Erdbeschreibung	________
2.	e Vielweiberei	________
3.	e Rücksicht	________
4.	s Stelldichein	________
5.	e Lehrart	________
6.	e Leidenschaft	________
7.	r Dunstkreis	________
8.	e Nachschrift	_____ ________
9.	empfindsam	________
10.	unsinnig	________
11.	________	s Testament
12.	________	s Imperium
13.	________	s Journal
14.	________	r Appetit
15.	________	e Humanität
16.	________	s Fragment
17.	________	s Kuvert
18.	________	monoton
19.	________	permanent
20.	________	universal

1.72 Refinement of the Standard Language

In order to appreciate the prose style of the Classical period of German literature and, at the same time, to understand how much the language has changed since that time, read the following excerpt from Goethe's Dichtung und Wahrheit (I,1):

"Wir Knaben hatten eine sonntägliche Zusammenkunft, wo Jeder von ihm selbst verfertigte Verse producieren sollte. Und hier begegnete mir etwas Wunderbares, was mich sehr lang in Unruh setzte. Meine Gedichte, wie sie auch sein mochten, mußte ich immer für die bessern halten. Allein ich bemerkte bald, daß meine Mitwerber, welche sehr lahme Dinge vorbrachten, im gleichen Falle waren und sich nicht weniger dünkten; ja, was mir noch bedenklicher erschien, ein guter, obgleich zu solchen Arbeiten völlig unfähiger Knabe, dem ich übrigens gewogen war, der aber seine Reime sich vom Hofmeister machen ließ, hielt diese nicht allein für die allerbesten, sondern war auch völlig überzeugt, er habe sie selbst gemacht; wie er mir in dem vertrauteren Verhältniß, worin ich mit ihm stand, jederzeit aufrichtig behauptete. Da ich nun solchen Irrthum und Wahsinn offenbar vor mir sah, fiel es mir eines Tages aufs Herz, ob ich mich nicht vielleicht selbst in dem Falle befände, ob nicht jene Gedichte wirklich besser seien als die meinigen, und ob ich nicht mit Recht jenen Knaben ebenso toll als sie mir vorkommen möchte? Dieses beunruhigte mich sehr und lange Zeit; denn es war mir durchaus unmöglich, ein äußeres Kennzeichen der Wahrheit zu finden; ja, ich stockte sogar in meinen Hervorbringungen, bis mich endlich Leichtsinn und Selbstgefühl und zuletzt eine Probearbeit, die uns Lehrer und Eltern, welche auf unsere Scherze aufmerksam geworden, aus dem Stehgreif aufgaben, wobei ich gut bestand und allgemeines Lob davontrug."

a. Find four examples of spelling which differ from modern German:

__________ __________ __________ __________

b. Indicate words with apocope and syncope:

__________ __________ __________

c. The words below have a different meaning today. Explain what they meant in the context of Goethe's text nd what we would use today instead:

1. producieren (2) ____________________
2. Wunderbares (3) ____________________
3. Falle (7) ____________________
4. Wahnsinn (16) ____________________
5. Leichtsinn (24) ____________________
6. Scherze (26) ____________________

d. Replace the words and expressions below by their modern equivalents:

1. Knabe (1) ____________________
2. Allein (5) ____________________
3. Mitwerber (6) ____________________
4. Hofmeister (11) ____________________
5. dem...gewogen war (10) ____________________

6. fiel...aufs Herz (16) ______________________

e. Give four examples in which the relative pronouns differ from modern usage:

______________ ______________

______________ ______________

f. Identify four subjunctive forms:

______________ ______________

______________ ______________

1.8 Modern German

a. Compare the impact of dialects and regionalisms in Germany and in America.

____

____

____

____

b. Some of the following terms and expressions have assumed figurative meanings. Translate them into English and indicate their origin from (1) the railroad, (2) areas of science, (3) various types of sports:

1. die Weichen stellen ______________ ____
2. in Form sein ______________ ____
3. aufpulvern ______________ ____
4. spezifisches Gewicht ______________ ____
5. am Ball bleiben ______________ ____
6. ein großer Bahnhof ______________ ____
7. sondieren ______________ ____
8. zu Boden gehen ______________ ____
9. das Gleichgewicht halten ______________ ____
10. ausbooten ______________ ____
11. ein Pufferstaat ______________ ____
12. den Absprung finden ______________ ____

1.81 Modern Standard German

a. Below are words that are understood through popular etymology as derived from one source, although they are really derived from another. Match the words in the left column with the number of one word in the right which reflects the true origin of the former:

1. Wetterleuchten 'distant lightening'	1. leuchten	
2. schwierig 'difficult'	2. MHG leichen 'dance'	____
	3. OHG swēr 'abscess'	
3. Römer 'type of wine glass'	4. schwer	____
	5. Rom	____
4. Seehund 'seal'	6. Ruhm	____
	7. See	____
5. Elfenbein 'ivory'	8. OHG selah 'seal'	____
	9. Elefant	____
6. Rosenmontag 'Montag before Ash Wednesday'	10. Elfe	____
	11. Rose	____
7. Gerücht 'rumor'	12. rasen	____
	13. rufen	____
8. Eintracht 'unity'	14. riechen	____
	15. tragen	____
9. erst 'first'	16. trachten	____
	17. eins	____
10. Rosenheim 'town in Germany'	18. eher	____
	19. Leprose	____
11. Verlust 'loss'	20. Rose	____
	21. lustig	____
12. Schütze 'a good shot'	22. verlieren	____
	23. schießen	____
13. zu guter Letzt 'at long last'	24. schützen	____
	25. letzt-	____
14. potztausend an exclamation	26. laben	____
	27. Teufel	____
15. verschlingen 'to devour'	28. tausend	____
	29. Schlund	____
	30. Schlinge	
	31. Schlange	____

b. The following terms are synonyms which are used at different stylistic levels. Mark each term as to whether it is spoken in the

(1) Hochsprache, e.g. by a professor during a lecture,
(2) gehobene Umgangssprache, e.g. by upper class people,
(3) Umgangssprache, e.g. by townspeople with one another,
(4) Volkssprache, e.g. by young people or within a family,
(5) Sondersprache, e.g. by asocial groups.

1. weggehen	____	19. lügen	____
2. auskneifen	____	20. schwindeln	____
3. ausrücken	____	21. mogeln	____
4. Leine ziehen	____	22. flunkern	____
5. sich trollen	____	23. Unwahrheit sagen	____
6. sich absetzen	____	24. nicht bei der Wahrheit bleiben	____
7. abzwitschern	____		
8. sich entfernen	____	25. sterben	____
9. das Weite suchen	____	26. abkratzen	____
10. Geld	____	27. entschlafen	____

11. Moneten ____
12. Mittel ____
13. Zaster ____
14. Kröten ____
15. Kohlen ____
16. Pinke(pinke) ____
17. Penunze ____
18. Kapitalien ____
28. aushauchen ____
29. das Leben lassen ____
30. den Geist aufgeben ____
31. in die Grube fahren ____
32. das Zeitliche segnen ____
33. ins Gras beiβen ____
34. die Augen für immer schlieβen ____
35. verscheiden ____

1.82 Modern German Dialects

a. In order to gain a geographical perspective, match the dialect groups with the areas in which they are spoken:

DIALECT GROUPS

(1) Upper German
(2) West Middle German
(3) East Middle German
(4) West Low German
(5) East Low German

AREAS

1. Mecklenburg ____
2. Niedersachsen ____
3. Elsaβ ____
4. Österreich ____
5. Brandenburg ____
6. Obersachsen ____
7. Schweiz ____
8. Westfalen ____
9. Böhmen ____
10. Pommern ____
11. Schlesien ____
12. Ostfranken ____
13. Ostpreuβen ____
14. Mittelfranken ____
15. Thüringen ____
16. Rheinfranken ____

b. Match the following dialects with the towns listed below:

DIALECTS

(1) Hochalemannisch
(2) Ostfränkisch
(3) Niederalemannisch
(4) Ripuarisch
(5) Schwäbisch
(6) Obersächsisch
(7) Westfälisch
(8) Rheinfränkisch
(9) Schlesisch
(10) Bairisch
(11) Moselfränkisch
(12) Niederdeutsch

TOWNS

1. Basel ____
2. Köln ____
3. Leipzig ____
4. Bamberg ____
5. Nürnberg ____
6. Wien ____
7. Meiβen ____
10. Hannover ____
11. Wittenberg ____
12. Freiburg ____
13. Münster ____
14. Straβburg ____
15. Zürich ____
16. Magdeburg ____
19. Braunschweig ____
20. Dresden ____
21. Innsbruck ____
22. Ulm ____
23. Koblenz ____
24. Salzburg ____
25. Würzburg ____

8. Breslau	_____	17. Göttingen	_____	26. Lübeck	_____
9. Bremen	_____	18. Augsburg	_____	27. Karlsruhe	_____

c. Identify the dialects of the following samples:

1. Ick weit einen Eikbom, de steiht an de See,
   De Nordstorm, de brus't in sin Knäst;
   Stolz reckt hei de mächtige Kron in de Höh,
   So is dat all dusend Johr gewest;
   Kein Minschenhand
   De het em plant;
   Hei reckt sick von Pommern bet Nedderland. ____________

2. A Bauer hat drei Buabm im Feld,
   Sie lassen goar nix hörn,
   Jetzt is er halt nach Münka nein,
   Zum Fragen in d' Kasern.
   "Wie geht's mein Toni?" hat er gfragt,
   Den mag er halt vor allen.
   Da schaugens nach und sagens ihm:
   "Der is bei Wörth drin gfallen..." ____________

3. De Sonn steigt hinnern Wald drübn nei,
   Besaamt de Wolken rut,
   A jeder legt sei Warkzeig hi
   Und schwenkt zen Gruß den Hut.
   'S Feieromd, es Tagwark is vollbracht,
   'S giet alles seiner Haamit zu,
   Ganz sachte schleicht de Nacht. ____________

4. Einen Bock hat er si kaufet
   Und daß er ihm net verlaufet,
   Bindet en der guete Ma
   An de hintre Wage na. ____________

5. Dat du min Leevsten büst,
   Dat du wol weeßt.
   Kumm bi de Nacht,
   Segg mi wat Leevs! ____________

6. Wenn's Mailüfterl weht,
   Z'rgeht im Wald drauß der Schnee,
   Da heb'n d' blauen Veigerln ihre Köpferln in d' Höh.

   ____

1.9 Descriptions of the German Language

1.91 Early German Grammars

a. In his grammar, Shottel wrote the following under the title Von der Teilung des Nennwortes:

"1. Das Nennwort (Nomen) ist ein wandelbares Wort/ein Nahm oder Nennung eines Dinges/oder welches amzeiget ein Ding ohn Zeit und Tuhn.
2. Das Nennwort wird erkannt/weil es vor sich nimmt und leiden kann/der/die/das/ein/eine/ein/als: ein Kind/der Mensch...
9. Die völlige Erkäntniß des Nennwortes wird erforschet und erkant aus dessen...Haubtstükken/nemlich des Nennwortes Enderung (Motione)/...Geschlechte (Genere)/Zahle (Numero)/Zahlendung (Casu)/ Abwandelung (Declinatione)/Ableitung (Derivatione)/Doppelung (Comparatione)..."

1. Parts of speech in modern linguistics are defined by form, function, and marker. How modern is Schottel's definition?

   ____

   ____

2. Traditional English grammar defined a noun as "the name of a person, place, or thing." Comment on the value of this definition and compare it with Schottel's approach.

   ____

   ____

3. Some elementary textbooks of German introduce German grammatical terminology. Is such an approach practical? Why/why not?

   ____

   ____

b. Give the appropriate English or German equivalents for the following grammatical terms:

GERMAN	ENGLISH
1. s hinweisende Fürwort	______
2. s Geschlechtswort	______
3. e Höchststufe	______
4. e Beugung	______
5. s Tätigkeitswort	______
6. r Wes-Fall	______
7. e Vorvergangenheit	______
8. e Leideform	______
9. s Hauptwort	______
10. e Einzahl	______
11. e Nennform	______
12. e Satzaussage	______

13. ______________________ accusative case
14. ______________________ tense
15. ______________________ imperative
16. ______________________ subject
17. ______________________ relative clause
18. ______________________ conjunction
19. ______________________ mood
20. ______________________ adverb
21. ______________________ grammar
22. ______________________ personal pronoun
23. ______________________ active voice
24. ______________________ syntax

1.92 Descriptions of Modern German

a. Indicate which characteristics of linguistic investigation are typical of

(1) traditional grammar
(2) content oriented grammar (inhaltbezogene Grammatik)
(3) structural-descriptive grammar
(4) transformational-generative grammar

1. Linguistic investigation emphasizes

   the relationship between world view and language ______

   mechanic-taxonomic analysis of human behavior ______

   creative aspects of human behavior ______

   mechanical choices in human behavior ______

2. The investigation proceeds from

   deep and conceptual structure of language to surface structure ______

   phonology to morphology to syntax ______

   philosophical analysis of content ______

   morphology to syntax ______

3. The grammatical analysis is understood as

   a segmentation and classification of elements of sentences ______

   a device to reflect the individual and social view of the world ______

   a system defining and characterizing all grammatically correct sentences of a language ______

   a classification of morphological markers ______

4. The basis of analysis is primarily ______

   the written language of literature ______

the spoken language of a linguistic community ______

the language of an individual observed through introspection by the investigator ______

the linguistic competence of speakers rather than their actual performance ______

5. The analysis stresses

particulars in which each language differs uniquely from others ______

semantic particulars reflecting the culture of the linguistic community ______

universals in which all languages are alike ______

particulars of one language that are applicable to other languages ______

b. Since content-oriented and transformational grammar have exerted only limited influence on the grammatical descriptions in textbooks of elementary German, primarily characteristics of (1) traditional and (2) structural-descriptive grammar can be found. Indicate which example reflects the descriptive devices of one of the two schools:

1. Abundance of verbal and nominal paradigms ______
2. Abbreviated charts of morphological classes ______
3. Nouns sequenced without context nominative-genitive-dative-accusative ______
4. Practice through oral drills ______
5. Definition of phonemes by articulatory characteristics ______
6. Practice by written translations ______
7. Nouns ssequenced nominative-accusative, etc. ______
8. Innovative terminology ______
9. Approximate transfer of native to foreign sound ______
10. Contrasting structures that differ in the native and the target language ______
11. Latin terminology ______
12. Describing and memorizing all structures regardless of difficulty ______

CHAPTER TWO

2. PHONOLOGY
2.1 Phonemics

a. In the textbooks you are using in your elementary German classes, how much space is devoted to phonology and pronunciation?

b. Does the textbook contain articulatory descriptions of German sounds and drills to practice those sounds which differ from English?

c. Some German teachers seem to have the attitude that language is commmunication and they pursue the goal of speaking and understanding German without regard to good pronunciation. What is your attitude?

2.2 Transcriptions

Transcribe the following text in normal orthography:

/ainə bīnə felt ins vasʌ. ainə naxtigal zitst auf

ainəm baum unt zīt dī bīnə im vasʌ. zī zīt das dī

bīnə ans lant švimən vil. Zī nimt ain blat fom baum

unt lest es īn ins vasʌ fallən. dī bīnə zetst ziç zuf

das blat unt komt in vēnigən minūtən glükliç

ans lant. ainigə tāgə špētʌ zitst dī naxtigal vīdʌ

auf ainəm baum. ain juŋə komt nimt ainən štain unt

vil dī naxtigal tȫtən. šnel zetst ziç dī bīnə auf

dī hant des juŋən. dēr juŋə fūlt den štaxəl dēr bīnə

lest den štain falən und dī naxtigal flīkt wek/

2.3 Consonants

2.31 Description of Consonants

a. Write the phonetic symbol of the sounds described below:

1. voiceless bilabial stop ______
2. voiceless glottal spirant ______
3. voiceless dorso-alveolar spirant ______
4. voiced labio-dental spirant ______
5. voiceless dorso-velar spirant ______
6. voiced bilabial stop ______
7. bilabial nasal ______
8. voiceless bilabial affricate ______
9. voiced dorso-velar stop ______
10. voiceless apico-dental stop ______
11. apico-dental nasal ______
12. voiceless dorso-velar stop ______
13. voiceless dorso-palatal spirant ______
14. voiced apico-dental stop ______
15. voiced apico-dental spirant ______
16. voiced labio-dental spirant ______
17. voiceless apico-alveolar affricate ______
18. voiced dorso-palatal spirant ______
19. voiced dorso-uvular trill ______
20. velar nasal ______
21. voiced apico-dental sibilant ______
22. voiceless lateral ______
23. voiceless alveolar-palatal sibilant ______
24. voiceless apico-dental sibilant ______
25. voiced alveolar-palatal sibilant ______

b. 1. Of the phonemes above, sixteen can be grouped in pairs with the same manner of articulation, but in voiced - voiceless opposition. Give the pairs and their numbers:

______ ______   ______ ______   ______ ______   ______ ______

______ ______   ______ ______   ______ ______   ______ ______

2. Of the pairs you just found, which does not occur in German?

______ ______

3. One partner in one of the pairs has no equivalent in English. Which one is it?

______

4. Of the remaining consonants in a., which two are phonemes in German but not in English?

_____ _____

5. Which of the phonemes are produced by closing the oral passage and letting the breath escape through the nose?

_____ _____ _____

6. Which exclusively German phoneme has no voiced counterpart?

_____

7. Which phoneme in both German and English has no voiced counterpart?

_____

8. Which phoneme is produced by letting the breath stream flow at the sides of the tongue?

_____

c. One symbol in each of the following sets is inappropriate. Circle it and explain why it does not fit into the group:

1.	/f/	/v/	/m/	/h/	________
2.	/t/	/a/	/p/	/b/	________
3.	/n/	/m/	/r/	/ŋ/	________
4.	/ç/	/x/	/f/	/l/	________
5.	/k/	/t/	/n/	/g/	________
6.	/ts/	/s/	/š/	/z/	________
7.	/r/	/t/	/d/	/m/	________
8.	/h/	/f/	/p/	/ç/	________
9.	/g/	/k/	/x/	/t/	________
10.	/m/	/f/	/j/	/b/	________

2.32-2.33 English-German Conflicts

a. What sound in the German phonemic inventory has contributed to the impressionistic notion that German is a "guttural" language?

_____

b. Summarize the techniques which can minimize inhibition and embarrassment for students who are learning foreign sounds:

____

____

c. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of delaying the introduction of the written word until the pronunciation of an elementary German class has reached a level of ease and perfection:

____

____

2.331 Phonemic Conflicts

a. Below are some graphemic consonant symbols which have different values in German and English. Give the phonemic symbols and an example in each language:

GERMAN				ENGLISH		
GRAPHEME	POSITION	PHONEME	EXAMPLE	POSITION	PHONEME	EXAMPLE
<z>						
<s>	before vowel					
	before /t/, /p/					
<ch>	after front vowel					
	after back vowel					
	before /s/					
<th>						
<w>						

b. In teaching and practicing sounds, the teacher needs a group of examples, if possible minimal pairs, which illustrate the difference between phonemes. Form examples which contrast

1. German /ç/ and /k/

________ ________ ________ ________

________ ________ ________ ________

2. German /ç/ and /š/

________ ________ ________ ________

________ ________ ________ ________

3. German /ç/ and /x/

________ ________ ________ ________

________ ________ ________ ________

4. German /x/ /ç/ and /k/

________ ________ ________ ________

________ ________ ________ ________

2.332 Phonetic Conflicts

a. Design a teaching plan on how to introduce, explain in articulatory terms, and practice the German /l/, /r/:

____

____

____

b. Form minimal pairs, if possible, for the following pairs of sounds:

1. German /l/ and English /ɫ/

   __________ __________ __________ __________

   __________ __________ __________ __________

2. German [R] and English [r]

   __________ __________ __________ __________

   __________ __________ __________ __________

3. German prevocalic [R] and postvocalic [^]

   __________ __________ __________ __________

   __________ __________ __________ __________

4. German [R] and German /l/

   __________ __________ __________ __________

   __________ __________ __________ __________

2.333 Allophonic Conflicts: /š/; /p,t,k/: Medial /t/

a. Form minimal pairs, opposing German /š/ and English /š/:

   __________ __________ __________ __________

   __________ __________ __________ __________

b. Sort out the approximate German and English pairs which illustrate English unaspirated, unreleased /p,t,k/ and German aspirated, released /p,t,k/. Fill the pairs in the appropriate boxes below:

ab, hart, welke, kalt, Lampe, Lump, sank, Schärpe, sollte, welk, warte, wirke

bumper, salty, bulky, up, colt, elk, sharper, turkey, party, sank, lump, heart

	MEDIAL BEFORE UNSTRESSED VOWEL	FINAL
/p/		
/t/		
/k/		

2.334 Distributional Conflicts: Clusters

a. To demonstrate what kinds of combinations in consonant clusters are possible in English and in German, place a + in the proper space where such a combination is possible (ignore foreign words):

	ENGLISH						GERMAN					
	(Vowel)	/r/	/l/	/m/	/n/	/w/	(Vowel)	/r/	/l/	/m/	/n/	/v/
/p/	-----						-----					
/t/	-----						-----					
/k/	-----						-----					
/b/	-----						-----					
/d/	-----						-----					
/g/	-----						-----					
/f/	-----						-----					
/s/	-----						-----					
/š/	-----						-----					
/sp/												
/st/												
/šp/												
/št/												
/sk/												

1. Circle the German consonant clusters above which have no equivalent in English.
2. What teaching problems arise from the combination of velar stop + nasal?

 ____

 ____

3. What teaching problems arise from the clusters containing sibilants and stops in German?

 ____

 ____

b. The combination of voiceless stop and homorganic spirant (here including sibilant) is called an affricate. At what stage in the history of the German language did the affricates originate and

why does English have no equivalent?

____

____

c. Transcribe the following words and fill them in the appropriate boxes:

Pfand, Adagio, Herz, Psalm, hetzen, Tscheche, Stumpf, Mops, Dschungel, hüpfen, Stöpsel, zart, latschen, Matsch.

CLUSTER	WORD-INITIAL	MEDIAL	FINAL
/ /			
/ /			
/ /			
/ /			
/ /			-------

2.4 Vowels
2.41 Description of Vowels

a. Circle the words which contain in their first syllable the vowels described below:

1. High vowels are in:
   Kiele, kühle, Kohle, Köhler, Kuhle, Kehle, kahle, Keile, Keule
2. Mid vowels are in:
   Bahnen, Bohnen, Besen, Bienen, Busen, Bühnen, bösen
3. Low vowel is in:
   Lügen, lögen, logen, lugen, legen, liegen, lagen
4. Front vowels are in:
   Rassen, rissen, Russen, rüsten, Rossen, rösten, Resten
5. Back vowels are in:
   Rose, Rabe, Reise, Rebe, Ruhe
6. Diphthongs are in:
   Latte, lette, Leute, litte, leite, läute, Laute
7. Long vowels are in:
   Stiele, Stadt, steht, Stätte, Stollen, Staat, Stille, Stühle, Stulle, gestohlen, stürzen, Stuhl

b. Give the phonetic symbol for the vowel sound described below:

1. Long high rounded front vowel ______
2. Short low back vowel ______
3. Mid central vowel ______
4. Long high rounded back vowel ______
5. Short mid unround front vowel ______
6. Long mid rounded front vowel ______
7. Short mid rounded back vowel ______
8. Short unround high front vowel ______

c. 1. Of the vowels you just found, seven each have a counterpart differing in only quantity. Match the vowels above with their long/short counterparts:

   ______ ______ ______ ______ ______ ______ ______ ______

   ______ ______ ______ ______ ______ ______ ______ ______

2. What vowel in b. above does not belong to a pair? ______
3. Which of the vowels do not exist in English?

   ______ ______ ______ ______

d. Vowels are sometimes classified, in a manner similar to consonants, as palatal and velar, according to their place of articulation along the tongue.

1. Which four German vowels are palatal? ______ ______ ______ ______
2. Which three German long vowels are velar? ______ ______ ______

3. Which four (long and short) vowels originated from the palatalization of velar vowels in the Old High German time?

   ______ ______ ______ ______

2.42 German and English Vowel Systems

a. In the following diagram, place a + in the box in which the features 'stressed-unstressed,' 'open-closed syllable,' 'long-short' and 'tense-lax' describe the distribution:

	STRESSED SYLLABLE			UNSTRESSED SYLLABLE	
	LONG	SHORT		SHORT	
	TENSE	TENSE	LAX	TENSE	LAX
OPEN SYLLABLE					
CLOSED SYLLABLE					

b. The spelling of the letter <ä> is a writing convention which indicates that the vowel originated from *a by umlaut (1.422; 2.62). When short, <ä> represents /ɛ/, and there is no difference in words such as Eltern-älter. However, when long, many German speakers have, in careful speech, two distinct phonemes in words such as Beeren-Bären, the first phonemically /ē/, the latter /ɛ̄/.

1. Find the word which makes up a minimal pair for the following words and test whether or not you distinguish between the two phonemes:

/e/	/ɛ/
geben	______
______	Schwären
Segen	______
______	Dänen
wegen	______
______	stählen

2. In what instances is a distinction between the two sounds practical in the classroom?

   ____

3. Are these words useful in the classroom? Krämerseele, Erdnähe, Seebäder, Sägemehl, zählebig.

   ____

   ____

2.43 English-German Conflicts

2.431 Allophonic Conflicts: /i,u,e,o/; /ai,au,oi/; /ə/

a. Transcribe the following words in phonetic transcription, carefully noting long and short vowels:

1. Buchdruckerkunst ______
2. Kinderspiel ______
3. Nebenstelle ______
4. Kostprobe ______
5. Schiedsrichter ______
6. Meereswellen ______
7. Hosenrock ______
8. Untersuchung ______
9. Wißbegier ______
10. Goldkrone ______

b. Practice the pronunciation of the diphthongs in the following words:

1. Raumlichkeiten	4. Eiszeit	7. Maurersleute
2. Seiteneingang	5. Sauberkeit	8. Augenaufschalg
3. Räuberbeute	6. Trauerkleid	9. meistgebraucht

c. Sort out from the following minimal pairs those which practice /ə/, / /, and /ɨ/ and write them in transcription in the proper categories:
Sieges-Siegers, Bote-Botin, Lage-Lager, Tisches-Tischlers, Grieche-Griechin, sprechen-Sprechern, Fliege-Flieger, fahren-Fahren, Frage-Frager, Gatte-Gattin, zeigen-Zeigern, Fisches-Fischers.

1. [ən] - [ʌn]

______ ______
______ ______
______ ______

2. [ə] - [ʌ]

______ ______
______ ______
______ ______

3. [əs] - [ʌs]

______ ______
______ ______
______ ______

4. [ən] - [ɨn]

______ ______
______ ______
______ ______

2.432 Phonetic Conflicts /a,a,o/

a. Transcribe the following poem by Goethe:

Feiger Gedanken ______
Bängliches Schwanken, ______
Weibisches Zagen, ______
Ängstliches Klagen, ______
Wendet kein Elend, ______
Macht dich nicht frei. ______

Allen Gewalten ______________________
Zum Trotz sich erhalten, ______________________
Nimmer sich beugen, ______________________
Kräftig sich zeigen ______________________
Rufet die Arme ______________________
der Götter herbei. ______________________

b. Organize the words from this poem which contain /ā/, /a/ or /o/ in the spaces below:

/ā/ ________ ________

/a/ ________ ________ ________ ________ ________
________ ________

/o/ ________

c. For practice, form minimal pairs which oppose /ā/, /a/ and /o/ by completing the words below:

/ā/	Sch le	f hle	L chen	r te	B se	W hlen
/a/	Sch lle	f lle	l chen	R tte	B sse	w llen
/o/	Sch lle	v lle	l chen	R tte	B sse	w llen

2.433 Phonemic Conflicts: /ū, ü, ō, ö/; Vowels before /r/

a. Transcribe the following poem by Schiller:

Ach, aus dieses Tales Gründen, ______________________
die der kalte Nebel drückt, ______________________
könnt ich doch den Ausgang finden, ______________________
ach, wie fühlt ich mich beglückt! ______________________
Dort erblick ich schöne Hügel, ______________________
ewig jung und ewig grün! ______________________
Hätt ich Schwingen, hätt ich Flügel, ______________________
nach den Hügeln zög ich hin! ______________________

b. Sort out the words which contain rounded front vowels in the above text and form minimal pairs according to the provided clues:

	/ū/	/ī/	/ū/
1.	________	________	Pf ________
2.	________	R ________	h (ɣ)
3	________	en	ewald
4.	________	(ɣ)	(eɣ)
	/ü/	/i/	/u/
5.	________	sch(ɣ)	Schr ________

6.	______	st ______	Schr ______
7.	______	______ st ______	______
	/ō/	/ē/	/ō/
8.	______	ge ______ (n̸)hen	______
9.	______	r ______ e	______
	/ö/	/e/	/o/
10.	______	______	ge ______

c. To illustrate how the allophones of German /r/ are used in vocalic surroundings, transcribe the underlined portions of this poem by Nietzsche, noting especially vowels in unstressed syllables and before /r/ and using the following symbols:

[R] prevocalic in stressed syllable

[ʌ] postvocalic after long vowel in stressed syllable

[r] postvocalic after short vowel in stressed syllable

[ʌ] unstressed -er word-final

[ɹ] in non-final unstressed position

Die Krähen schrein ______
und ziehen schwirren Flugs zur Stadt: ______
bald wird es schnein - ______
wohl dem, der jetzt noch - Heimat hat! ______

Nun stehst du starr, ______
schaust rückwärts, ach, wie lange schon! ______
Was bist du Narr ______
vor Winters in die Welt entflohn? ______

Die Welt - ein Tor ______
zu tausend Wüsten stumm und kalt! ______
Wer das verlor, ______
was du verlorst, macht nirgends halt. ______

Nun stehst du bleich, ______
zur Winter-Wanderschaft verflucht, ______
dem Rauche gleich, ______
der stets nach kältern Himmeln sucht. ______

Flieg, Vogel, schnarr ______
dein Lied im Wüstenvogel-Ton! ______
Versteck, du Narr, ______
dein blutend Herz in Eis und Hohn! ______

Die Krähen schrein ____
und ziehen schwirren Flugs zur Stadt: ____
bald wird es schnein - ____
weh dem, der keine Heimat hat! ____

2.434 Distributional Conflicts: Unstressed Vowels

The following words are grouped according to their vowels and stress patterns, /'V/ representing any vowel with primary stress, /v/ any other vowel.

Transcribe the words, indicating in particular, tenseness and laxness of the vowels as well as length:

/v-'V.../

1. Essenz ____
2. Zigarre ____
3. elektrisch ____

/v-v-'V.../

4. Lizensierung ____
5. Kompromisse ____
6. demokratisch ____

/v-v-v-'V.../

7. Restauration ____
8. kompromittieren ____
9. anthropologisch ____

/v-v-v-v-'V.../

10. Dezentralisierung ____
11. Kollaboration ____
12. Elektrizität ____

/v-v-v-v-v-'V.../

13. Demilitarisierung ____
14. Reorganisation ____
15. onomatopoetisch ____

2.5 Suprasegmentals
2.51 Stress

a. Indicate the primary stress in the word pairs below:

Überfall	-	überfallen	Unterhaltung	-	unterhalten
Urteil	-	erteilen	Durchbruch	-	durchbrechen
Urlaub	-	erlauben	Zukunft	-	zukommen

b. Form the tenses, as indicated:

	'über,treten	über'treten
1. Pres	Er ______	Er ______
2. Perf	Er ______	Er ______
3 Modal	Er will ______	Er will ______
4. Pres	Wenn er ______	Wenn er ______

c. Give the plural and indicate the primary stress:

1. Motor	______	4. Atlas	______
2. Dämon	______	5. Charakter	______
3. Pastor	______	6. Dirigent	______

2.52 Intonation

Briefly discuss whether or not a discussion of intonational patterns of German is necessary and/or practical:

______

______

2.53 Juncture

a. What part of juncture has led to the impressionistic notion that German is a "military, staccato" language?

______

b. Outline how the English habit of "running words together" can be overcome and how German juncture is practiced:

______

______

2.6 Orthography

2.61 Consonant Graphemes

a. The letter <s> is the most overworked in the German spelling system. Give the phonetic symbol for the pronunciation in the surroundings indicated below:

1. <s> initially before vowel ____________
2. <s> initially before <t, p> ____________
3. <s> initially before other voiceless consonants ____________
4. <s> medially before long vowel and voiced consonants ____________
5. <ss> medially after short vowel ____________
6. <s> finally after vowels and consonants ____________

b. The Eszet <ß> has the phonetic value

7. <ß> medially after long vowel ____________
8. <ß> finally after vowels and before <t> ____________

c. How does one know whether to spell <s> or <ß> at the end of words after vowels?

9. ____

d. What is the phonetic value of <s> before and after voiceless consonants medially and finally?

10. ____

e. Match the words below with the number (1-10) of the surroundings of <s> in a. through d. above:

1. singen	________	11. Fluß	________
2. Stein	________	12. Wespe	________
3. Skala	________	13. messen	________
4. Rose	________	14. Hals	________
5. Laus	________	15. Spule	________
6. Hast	________	16. Hirse	________
7. hassen	________	17. Rößchen	________
8. heißen	________	18. Hülse	________
9. Aster	________	19. links	________
10. Achse	________	20. Börse	________

f. Complete the words:

<s> or <ss>? 1. In we___en Wohnung ___ind ___ie gewe___en? 2. Mit die___em Be___en ___oll Il___e be___er fegen. 3. Wo ha___t du da___ Buch gela___en, da___ wir la___en? 4. Mit Getö___e fiel der Wa___erke___el herunter.

<s> or <ß>? 5. Annelie e hat Mu e, ihre wei e Blu e zu waschen. 6. Wer hat die gro e Va e mit den Ro en umgesto en? 7. Ein wei er Mann bleibt zu Hau e, wenn drau en tau end Auto durch die Stra en sau en.

<ß> or <ss>? 8. Sie mü en wi en, da das Wa er jetzt hei ist. 9. Er soll diese Flü igkeit nicht auf seine blo en Fü e gie en.

<st> or <ßt>? 10. Wenn ich nur wü e, ob der urm die O kü e verwü et hat. 11. Sie ha diesen häßlichen Ka en. 12. Er hat gewu , wie der Pa or heißt. 13. Die be en Lei ungen der udenten werden von der Schule begrü .

2.62 Vowel Graphemes

a. Complete the words paying particular attention to the length of the vowels:

/ī/ or /i/? 1. W r tr nken h r v l B r. 2. M tte Apr l b ttet lse ren M ter um d M te und g bt m eine Qu ttung. 3. Sab ne ßt v r r s ge B rnen.

/ē/ or /e/? 4. P ter und va s hen an dieser St lle die die h llen W llen auf d m S . 5. Auf d m r chten F ld st t st ts eine H rde sch ller Pf rde. 6. Wir br chen die K kse auf d m T ller.

/ū/ or /ü/? 7. Er sagte m de, er m sse noch f nf B cher lesen. 8. An den Fl ssen liegen h ben und dr ben gr ne H gel. 9. Die M tter h ten h stelnd die T ren der H tten. 10. Er sendet Gr ße und K sse.

/ō/ or /ö/? 11. Z lle wurden pl tzlich wieder erh ht. 12. M gen Sie r tliche H lzer? 13. Die sch ne sterreicherin err tete b se. 14. stliche Fr ste st ren die Kl ster.

b. Complete the following words:

<e> or <ä>? 1. In den F_ldern, W_ldern und T_lern j_ner L_nder l_ben viele b_renfr_ssende B_ren. 2. Die verh_hrende K_lte l_hmt die Kr_fte der h_rtesten M_nner. 3. Die _rnsten W_hler ern_nnen die _hrlichen R_te der b_sten St_dte.

<i> or <ie>? 4. Br_g_tte _ßt ihren F_sch am T_sch _m f_nsteren Z_mmer. 5. D_s greichen Gr_chen schl_ßen _mmer w_der Fr_den. 6. S_ schr_b m_r s_ben ausg_b_ge Br_fe. 7. Der _gel und der B_ber s_nd n_dl_che T_re.

<ei> or <ai>? 8. Im M_ singt H_nz _ne kl_ne W_se. 9. Die w_se W_se bl_bt mit _nem L_b Brot all_n. 10. Der K_ser r_tet im H_n am R_n des Rh_ns. 11. M_s und R_s sind nicht h_mische Getr_de.

<äu> or <eu>? 12. Die L_te s_men unter _ren B_men oder in t_ren H_sern. 13. N_e Geb_de kosten hohe St_ern. 14. H_te l_tet er die Glocke fr_dig. 15. Die M_te bekämpft das h_lende F_er mit k_chenden Wasserschl_chen.

2.63 Syllabic Division

a. Summarize the respects in which it is important to teach the concepts of open and closed syllables at early stages of German instruction.

____

____

b. Rewrite the following expressions and indicate syllabic division:

1. königliche Hoheit ____________________
2. treue Freundinnen ____________________
3. unsinnige Behauptungen ____________________
4. zuckersüße Kekse ____________________
5. bunte Herbstastern ____________________
6. erwachsene Enkelkinder ____________________
7. die Vereinigten Staaten ____________________
8. deutsche Gründlichkeit ____________________
9. unwillkommene Gäste ____________________
10. Auffassungsvermögen ____________________
11. Erbauungsliteratur ____________________
12. Einkaufsliste ____________________

13. Untersuchungsgefängnis ____________________
14. außerordentliche Mühe ____________________
15. Regierungsdirektoren ____________________

2.64-2.65 Capitalization - Punctuation

Rewrite the following text (adapted from Hellmuth Rösler's Deutsche Geschichte, Stuttgart, 1961, p. 42) with the appropriate capitalization and punctuation:

karl der große überragte mit seiner köpergröße von 192 metern

schon außerlich seine umgebung man sah auch an seinem von

blonden locken umrahmten antlitz mit der etwas überlangen

gebogenen nase und den gewöhnlich gütigen nur in der leiden-

schaft aufflammenden augen den geborenen herrscher seine hohe

durchdringende stimmme war das passende werkzeug seines wendigen

geistes der durch übingen aller art gestählte körper

versagte sich dessen nie tief eingewurzelt war in karl

war der glaube an die fränkische weltsendung die nach

seinem tode otfried von weißenburg mit den stolzen worten

wiedergab die franken sind hochgemut zu vielem guten zu

vielem vorteil führt sie der verstand kein volk das an ihr

land grenzt entzieht sich ihnen durch ihre tüchtigkeit

zwingen sie es ihnen zu dienen alles was sie im sinne haben

führen sie mit gott aus nichts tun sie in der not ohne

seinen rat

CHAPTER THREE

3. VERB PHRASE
3.1 Forms in the Verb Phrase
3.11 Verbal Inflection

Identify the inflectional devices in the examples below; use (1) - (4): (1) inflectional morpheme, (2) ablaut, (3) umlaut, (4) prefix.

1. (gold)	gilt	_____	11. (reißen)	Riß	_____
2. (bind)	bond	_____	12. (denken)	bedenken	_____
3. (go)	goes	_____	13. (altern)	Eltern	_____
4. (sing)	singing	_____	14. (fragen)	fragend	_____
5. (goose)	geese	_____	15. (fahren)	Fähre	_____
6. (come)	become	_____	16. (schieben)	Schub	_____
7. (swear)	sworn	_____	17. (beten)	Gebet	_____
8. (doom)	deem	_____	18. (fanden)	fänden	_____
9. (give)	forgive	_____	19. (Sitz)	sitze	_____
10 (mend)	mended	_____	20. (zwingen)	Zwang	_____

3.12 Inflected Forms

a. Evaluate the merit of using German grammatical terminology in elementary classes, e.g. Gegenwart 'present tense,' Einzahl 'singular,' etc.

____

____

b. Identify grammatically the following English and German verb phrases, e.g. Sie hatten gesehen werden müssen 'they had to have been seen' = pl sie-form past perfect passive indicative with modal.

1. Er ist gefahren.

____

____

2. Du hättest ihn erkennen sollen.

____

3. Ich bin nicht gefragt worden.

____

4. Wir haben es beschreiben müssen.

____

5. Bestellen Sie es!

____

6. He had not been informed.

____

7. If I were rich...

8. They will have arrived by now.

9. She had to have believed it.

10. We could have been mentioned.

3.13-3.131 Verb Types - Separable and Inseparable Verbs

a. Evaluate the practical merit of the suggestion that grammatical phenomena should be described not only by their form and function, but also by the number of members in each class.

b. Indicate which of the following verbs are separable and which are inseparable by completing the verb phrase with the particle zu:

1. Sie wagte nicht, seine Worte (anzweifeln/bezweifeln).

2. Wir planen, den Berg (ersteigen/besteigen).

3. Sie hat vergessen, den Tresor (abschließen/verschließen).

4. Er beabsichtigt, die Pläne besser (ausarbeiten/bearbeiten).

5. Sie versprechen, seine Post (weitersenden/nachsenden).

6. Es fällt ihm schwer, pünktlich (erwachen/aufwachen).

7. Sie versuchen, sich eine Existenz (erbauen/aufbauen).

8. Es ist unmöglich, seine Staatsbürgerschaft (erweisen/beweisen).

9. Ich bin unfähig, es Ihnen (abkaufen/verkaufen).

10. Sie planen, bald (abfahren/zurückfahren).

c. Where does zu belong?

1. (durchbrechen): Die Sonne scheint die Wolken __________. Er bemüht sich, den Stock __________.
2. (unterstellen): Er plante, ihr schlechte Absichten __________. Wir denken nicht daran, uns im Regen __________.
3. (untergraben): Der Gärtner begann, den Dünger __________. Der Alkohol begann, seine Gesundheit __________.
4. (überziehen): Ich plane nicht, mein Bankkonto __________. Er bat sie, sich einen Mantel __________.
5. (durchfahren): Der Zug scheint Hamburg __________. Der Zug scheint bis Hamburg __________.
6. (umschreiben): Man bat ihn, diese Forderung mit besseren Worten __________.
7. (durchkreuzen): Der Lehrer begann, die falschen Antworten mit Rotstift __________. Er beabischtigte nicht, unsere Ferienpläne __________.
8. (umstellen): Aus Langeweile begann sie, die Möbel __________. Die Polizei plante, das Haus des Verdächtigten __________.
9. (übergehen): Ich denke nicht daran, den Vorfall mit Stillschweigen __________. Die Musiker begannen, in eine andere Tonart __________.
10. (umgehen): Sie baten ihn, mit seinem Geld sparsam __________. Sie weigerte sich, die Antwort __________.

3.132 Weak Verbs

a. Explain why all newly coined or borrowed verbs in English and German are weak.

____

b. Design a small teaching unit comparing the English and German dental suffixes of weak verbs.

____

____

3.133 Strong Verbs

a. Many originally strong verbs have become weak in English. Some of their strong forms survive as adjectives. Match the underlined English adjectives with their cognate German strong verbs and give the three stemforms of the strong verb:

ENGLISH	GERMAN COGNATE VERB		
1. a snide remark	________	________	________
2. the waxing moon	________	________	________
3. molten lava	________	________	________
4. a wound clock	________	________	________
5. frozen meat	________	________	________
6. a graven image	________	________	________
7. driven snow	________	________	________
8. a sworn enemy	________	________	________
9. with heaving lungs	________	________	________
10. a shorn sheep	________	________	________
11. a swollen river	________	________	________
12. sodden ground	________	________	________
13. a forlorn expression	________	________	________
14. the downtrodden masses	________	________	________
15. a sunken ship	________	________	________
16. the forbidden fruit	________	________	________
17. a bounden duty	________	________	________
18. blown glass	________	________	________
19. a drunken bum	________	________	________
20. a high-born person	________	________	________

b. It is unrealistic to teach all strong verbs in the first year of elementary German. If you were to design a textbook, what verbs or classes of verbs would you introduce?

____

____

c. It has been suggested that certain strong verbs should be distinguished from the majority because of their consonantal alternations, such as stehen - stand, and that these verbs should constitute a separate group called "irregular strong." How many verbs belong in that group and is such a class necessary and practical?

____

____

d. Show the predictability of formal clues to weak and strong inflection by placing a + into the appropriate box:

FORMAL CLUES	ALWAYS WEAK	MOSTLY WEAK	WEAK OR STRONG	MOSTLY STRONG
1. Infinitive vowel eu/äu (reuen/läuten)				
2. Infinitive vowel ä/ö/ü (lärmen/lösen/rügen)				
3. Infinitive vowel o/u/au (bohren/brummen/bauen)				
4. Infinitive vowel e (leben)				
5. Infinitive vowel a (fragen)				
6. Infinitive vowel ei (leihen)				
7. Infinitive vowel ie (lieben)				
8. Infinitive ends with -eln/-ern/-igen/-ieren (ähneln/ärgern/verteidigen/telefonieren)				
9. Stem ends with in+consonant (finden/rinnen)				

10. Give the exceptions to (2.) above: ______________________

____

11. Give the exceptions to (3.) above: ______________________

____

3.134 Verbs with Weak or Strong Forms

a. Give the stem forms for:

INFINITIVE	PAST	P. PARTIC.	INFINITIVE	PAST	P. PARTIC.
1. set	____	________	5. raise	____	________
2. sit	____	________	6. rise	____	________
3. lay	____	________	7. hang	____	________

4. lie ______ ________ 8. hang ______ ________

b. What is the relationship between strong and weak tense formation and transitivity of the above verbs?

____

c. Design an exercise using the German verb pairs liegen/legen, stellen/stehen, setzen/sitzen and hangen/hängen to practice tense formation, use of an object, and the case of a prepositional phrase:

____

____

____

d. Rewrite the following sentences in the simple past tense:

1. Der Verkäufer wiegt das Fleisch. Es wiegt drei Pfund.

   ____

2. Sie bewegt ihn, ihr zu helfen. Sie bewegt ihr Hände nicht.

   ____

3. Nach der Arbeit schafft er nicht viel. Der Maler schafft ein neues Werk.

   ____

4. Die Mutter weicht die Wäsche ein. Der Autofahrer weicht dem Fußgänger aus.

   ____

5. Er schlieft mein Messer. Er schleift das Paket hinter sich her.

   ____

e. Complete the sentences using the simple past tense or the past participle:

wenden: 1. Das Kind __________ kein Auge von der Schokolade.

2. Seine Vorlesung __________ sich nur an Fachleute.

3. Das Wetter __________ sich, es begann zu regnen.

4. Gegen das Verbot __________ das Auto auf der Einbahnstraße.

5. Sie __________ sich ärgerlich gegen den Vorschlag.

senden: 6. Sie hatte uns ein Telegramm __________.

7. Du kommst wie gerufen, der Himmel hat dich __________.

8. Wann __________ der Rundfunk die Nachrichten?

9. Die Firma __________ uns immer Reklame zu.

10. Wohin __________ ihn die Regierung?

schaffen: 11. Am Anfang ____________ Gott Himmel und Erde.

12. Sie ____________ die Arbeit nicht allein.

13. Ich ____________ es nicht, ihm die Idee auszureden.

14. Beethoven ____________ neun unvergleichliche Symphonien.

15. Er ____________ die Voraussetzungen für den Plan.

bewegen: 16. Der Bagger ____________ große Mengen von Erde.

17. Die Preise ____________ sich zwischen 1000 und 2000 Mark.

18. Seine Frau ____________ ihn, in die Stadt zu ziehen.

19. Eure Geschichte hat uns lange ____________.

20. Ein kalter Wind ____________ die Bäume vor dem Haus.

schleifen: 21. Der Musemsführer ____________ uns von Saal zu Saal.

22. Sei vorsichtig! Die Messer sind frisch ____________.

23. Das Auto ergriff die Frau ____________ sie mit.

24. Dieser teure Edelstein ist noch nicht ____________.

25. Sie ____________ das weinende Kind die Straße entlang.

hängen: 26. Warum hast du deinen Beruf an den Nagel ____________?

27. Die Haare ____________ ihm Gesicht.

28. Das Photo hat jahrelang über dem Sofa ____________.

29. Die Wäsche hat zum Trocknen im Garten ____________.

30. Wohin hast du meinen Mantel ____________?

erschrecken: 31. Die Sirene hat mich sehr ____________.

32. Sie ____________ bei seinem Eintreten.

33. Ich hoffe, ich habe sie mit dieser Nachricht nicht ____________.

34. Wir ____________ von dem plötzlichen Krach.

35. Er war vor dem Gebrüll des Tigers ____________.

3.135 Mixed Verbs

a. Justify the separation of mixed verbs from weak and strong verbs on the basis of their formal characteristics:

____

____

b. What English verbs have characteristics similar to the German mixed verbs?

____________ ____________

3.1351 Modal Verbs and wissen

a. Why is the term 'auxiliaries' not fully appropriate for the modal verbs?

____

b. Do the English forms 'could,' 'would,' 'should' and 'might' express the concept of past tense without ambiguity?

____

c. Instead of the modal verbs, periphrastic constructions are frequently used in English. Match the expressions below with the German and English modals:

	ENGLISH	GERMAN
1. to be allowed to	____	____
2. to have to	____	____
3. to like (to)	____	____
4. to be supposed to	____	____
5. to be able to	____	____
6. to want (to)		____
7. to be permitted to	____	____
8. to be capable of	____	____

3.135 Auxiliaries

a. Contrast and compare the various stems of English 'to be' with those of German sein.

____

____

b. The auxiliary werden is used as a main verb in the active voice in different syntactical frames:

werden + adjective: Er wird krank.
werden + noun : Er wird Lehrer.

How is werden translated here and how is the perfect tense formed?

____

____

3.14 Inventory of Inflectional Morphemes
3.141 Inflectional Endings

The chart below organizes the inflectional morphemes for person and number. Complete the chart, indicating mood, tense, verb type, combinations with other morphemes, and examples.

3.14 Inventory of Inflectional Morphemes

3.141 Inflectional Endings

The chart below organizes the inflectional morphemes for person and number. Complete the chart, indicating mood, tense, verb type combinations with other morphemes, and examples.

PERS NUM	MOR-PHEME	MOOD	TENSE	VERB TYPE	OTHER MORPHEMES	EXAMPLES
ich	/-ə/	ind	pres	____	(none)	ich sage
				str	(none)	____
				____	____	ich kann, will
	/---/		____	____	inclusion /-tə-/	____
				str	____	____
		spec subj		all	____	____
		____		____	(does not exist)	
				str	____	____
du	/-st/	____		____	(none)	du sagst
			____	____	sometimes umlaut	____
				____	changed stem	____
			past	____	____	du sagtest
				str	____	____
		____		all	inclusion /-ə-/	____
		____		weak	(does not exist)	
				____	____	du sängest
		imper		____	(none)	____!
				str	(none)	____!
	/---/			str	e>i(e)	____!

PERS NUM	MOR-PHEME	MOOD	TENSE	VERB TYPE	OTHER MORPHEMES	EXAMPLE
er	/-t-/	ind	____	weak	(none)	er sagt
				____	____	____
	/---/			mod	____	____
			____	____	inclusion /-tə-/	____
				____	____	er sang
		spec subj		all	____	____
		____		weak	(does not exist)	
				____	____	er könnte
				____	abl, uml, /-ə-/	____
wir/ sie	/-n/	ind	____	all	(none)	wir sie sagen
			past	____	____	____
				____	____	wir sie sangen
		____		all	(does not exist)	
		____		weak	(does not exist)	
				____	____	wir sie sängen
ihr	/-t/	ind	pres	all	(none)	ihr sagt
			____	weak	inclusion /-tə-/	____
				____	____	ihr sangt
		____		all	inclusion /-ə-/	____
		____		weak	(does not exist)	
				____	____	ihr sänget
		imper		all	(none)	____!

3.142 Tense-and-Mood Markers

a. Many textbooks analyze the simple past tense of weak verbs in a manner different from that suggested here by considering the morpheme as /-t-/, e.g. du sag-t-est. Evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of this approach.

____

____

b. Justify the notion that the weak past morpheme /-tə-/ and the strong past morpheme caused by ablaut /~/ are allomorphs.

____

c. In what instances is apocope of final /ə/ operative in modern German?

____

3.1421 Phonological Conditioning of Verbal Morphemes

a. What are the allomorphs of the English past tense morpheme in weak verbs?

1. /_____/ after ______________________________
2. /_____/ after ______________________________
3. /_____/ after ______________________________

b. Identify the inflectional morphemes and the reason for phonological conditioning in the following examples:

	MORPHEME(S)	CONDITIONING
1. er lädt	/________/	________________
2. ihr antwortetet	/________/	________________
3. meutern	/________/	________________
4. du rätst	/________/	________________
5. ich drängle	/________/	________________
6. ihr standet	/________/	________________
7. wir leben	/________/	________________
8. sie lachten	/________/	________________
9. sie gleitet	/________/	________________
10. du mißt	/________/	________________
11. ihr schriet	/________/	________________
12. sie lagern	/________/	________________
13. du leidest	/________/	________________
14. es gilt	/________/	________________
15. du last	/________/	________________
16. ich läutete	/________/	________________

17. er reitet /__________/ ________________
18. sie beten /__________/ ________________
19. wir bemängeln /__________/ ________________
20. er schilt /__________/ ________________

3.15 Non-Finite Forms
3.151 Infintive

a. What is the English infinitive marker? ________________

b. Give the English equivalents of the infinitives below and indicate whether they are present or perfect infinitives:

1. fragen ________________ ________________
2. gesehen haben ________________ ________________
3. gerannt sein ________________ ________________
4. bauen ________________ ________________
5. studiert haben ________________ ________________
6. geworden sein ________________ ________________
7. erlebt haben ________________ ________________
8. gestorben sein ________________ ________________
9. grüßen ________________ ________________
10. vergangen sein ________________ ________________

3.152 Past Participle

a. How is the past participle formed in English?

____

____

b. Give the past participle of the verbs below and the English translation:

	PAST PARTICIPLE	ENGLISH
1. verlieren		
2. bringen		
3. telefonieren		
4. reiten		
5. dringen		
6. erheben		
7. kaufen		
8. wissen		
9. beschreiben		
10. sitzen		

3.153 Present Participle

a. Give the present participle of the German equivalents of the English examples below:

1. entertaining ____________________
2. frightening ____________________
3. gleaming ____________________
4. dancing ____________________
5. knowing ____________________
6. running ____________________
7. becoming ____________________
8. awakening ____________________
9. loving ____________________
10. ruining ____________________

b. Rewrite the following sentences, using the present participle with sein, e.g., Das überrascht uns - Das ist für uns überraschend.

1. Die Ruhe im Wald tut wohl.

____

2. An einem heißen Tag erfrischt kühle Limonade.

____

3. Harte Strafen schrecken Kriminelle ab.

____

4. Der Straßenlärm stört in unserem Haus.

____

5. Diese Behauptung trifft nicht zu.

____

6. Seine Bemerkungen leuchteten ihr ein.

____

7. Die schwere Arbeit ermüdete ihn.

____

8. Viele Einbrüche beunruhigen die Nachbarschaft.

____

9. Ein Glas Saft vor dem Essen regt den Appetit an.

____

10. Seine Bemerkungen beleidigten mich.

____

3.16 Formation of Simple Tenses and Moods, Active Voice
3.161 Present Indicative

a. When teaching the present tense,

1. what verb type(s) should be taught first?

____

2. what persons and numbers should be initially introduced?

____

3. At what time would the introduction of the present tense of modals be appropriate?

____

b. How can the interference of the English progressive be avoided?

____

3.162 Simple Past Indicative

a. During the Early New High German period, in the southern German dialects, final /ə/ was lost through apocope. Luther, a native of East Middle German, modeled the language of his bible translation on that of the Imperial Chancery in Vienna. However, he maintained /ə/ in most instances and even introduced it frequently where it historically did not belong, e.g. er sahe, fande for the past indicative. One of these "unorganic /ə/" entered the standard language in the past tense form of a frequently used verb. What form is it?

____

b. Rewrite the sentences, using the simple past tense.

1. Der Gast betritt das Zimmer und grüßt die Hausfrau.

____

2. Er studiert in München und arbeitet auch bei Meiers.

____

3. Sie ziehen aufs Land, denn sie ertragen die Stadt nicht.

____

4. Er verschließt die Haustür und steigt in den Wagen ein.

____

5. Ich hänge das Bild an die Wand. Es hängt schief.

____

6. Wir stehen auf und verlassen den Saal in Protest.

____

7. Die Schüler lernen, singen, spielen, diskutieren.

____

8. Er beteuert seine Unschuld und verspricht Besserung.

____

9. Wir bedenken und überlegen es lange.

____

10. Rotkäppchen geht spazieren und trifft den Wolf.

____

3.163 General Subjunctive

a. Explain why the simple past indicative of weak verbs is identical to the general subjunctive by examining the paradigm below:

	OLD HIGH GERMAN PAST IND.	OLD HIGH GERMAN SUBJUNCTIVE	NEW HIGH GERMAN
(ich)	suohta	suohti	suchte
(du)	suohtōs(t)	suohtīs(t)	suchtest
(er)	suohta	suohtī	suchte
(wir)	suohtum	suohtīm	suchten
(ihr)	suohtut	suohtīt	suchtet
(sie)	suohtun	suohtīn	suchten

____

____

b. The er-form simple past indicative of werden (wurde) was explained as unhistorical. Is the general subjunctive würde a regular form?

____

c. Discuss the merit of the following English expressions to explain the German general subjunctive:
'I wish I were rich. If only he spoke louder! If he came on time we could...If he took the train we would...'

____

____

d. There is one weak verb that forms the general subjunctive with umlaut. Which verb is it?

____

e. Indicate with a + those forms of the general subjunctive whose forms differ from the simple past indicative:

	wir/sie form	ihr form	er form	ich form	du form	EXAMPLE
1. weak verbs						
2. strong verbs with a,o,u in past ind						
3. strong verbs with i (e) in past ind						
4. mixed verbs						
5. stehen, werfen sterben						
6. können, mögen, müssen, dürfen						
7. sollen, wollen						
8. wissen						
9. haben						
10. sein						
11. werden						

3.164 Special Subjunctive

a. Discuss the value of the following English expressions to explain the forms of the German special subjunctive: 'God bless you! Long live the king! Thank goodness! They insisted we return promptly. Be it therefore resolved...'

____

____

b. It has been said that the forms of the special subjunctive are the most regular German verb forms. Substantiate this claim by comparing the indicative present with the special subjunctive forms:

____

____

c. Rewrite the following sentences with the verbs in special subjunctive, using the context 'He told me...' Er erzählte mir,...

1. heute geht er besonders ungern aus dem Haus.

2. das Wetter ist so schlecht, es regnet und stürmt.

3. es scheint, als ob der Winter beginnt.

4. leider ruft die Pflicht; er muß gehen, ob er will oder nicht.

5. er hat einen Brief von Inge, der gute Neuigkeiten bringt.

6. sie wird bald zurückkommen und plant, uns zu besuchen.

7. er veranstaltet dann ein Fest, zu dem er alle einlädt.

8. er weiß aber nicht, ob er Hans erreichen kann.

9. Hans hat kein Telefon und wohnt weit außerhalb.

10. es ist unwahrscheinlich, daß er Hans bald sieht.

d. Indicate with a + those forms of the special subjunctive which are distinct from the indicative:

	wir/sie form	ihr form	er form	ich form	du form	EXAMPLE
1. weak verbs, no dental ending of stem						
2. weak verbs, dental ending of stem						
3. strong verbs, umlaut du/er-forms, no dental ending						
5. strong verbs no umlaut, no dental ending of stem						
6. strong verbs, no umlaut, dental ending						
7. können, mögen, müssen, dürfen						
8. sollen, wollen						
9. wissen						
10. haben						
11. sein						
12. werden						

e. Identify the following forms as special or general subjunctive and supply the infinitive form:

	SUBJUNCTIVE	INFINITIVE
1. er böte	________	________
2. er löte	________	________
3. sie liebe	________	________
4. wir stünden	________	________
5. er schriebe	________	________
6. du gingest	________	________

7. es gelte ______ ______
8. man nehme ______ ______
9. ich dächte ______ ______
10. sie kennten ______ ______
11. du könntest ______ ______
12. er rufe ______ ______
13. sie schüfen ______ ______
14. er wisse ______ ______
15. ich litte ______ ______
16. du lögest ______ ______
17. sie hielten ______ ______
18. sie bitte ______ ______
19. wir sängen ______ ______
20. er dränge ______ ______

3.165 Imperative

a. Form the imperative for the following verbs:

	FAMILIAR SG	FAMILIAR PL	FORMAL
1. bedenken			
2. sich anziehen			
3. lesen			
4. still sein			
5. nehmen			
6. abschreiben			
7. bitten			
8. kochen			
9. sich freuen			
10. klingeln			

b. What form of the verb is bitte and danke? ______

c. Form the singular familiar imperative of the following sentences:

1. Du mußt die Arbeit sofort erledigen/machen.

______

2. Du sollst dich darum selbst kümmern/bemühen.

______

3. Du mußt dieser mehr Zeit opfern/widmen.

______

4. Du sollst deine Bitte anders formulieren/ausdrücken.

______

5. Du sollst pünktlich sein/ankommen.

____

6. Du sollst der Mutter helfen/beistehen.

____

7. Du mußt den Film ansehen und auch das Buch lesen.

____

8. Du sollst das Bild abmalen/kopieren.

____

9. Du mußt Gewicht abnehmen/verlieren.

____

10. Du sollst dich darüber nicht ärgern/aufregen.

____

3.17 Formation of Compound Tenses, Active Voice
3.171 Present Perfect Indicative

a. Form the present perfect of the following sentences:

1. Er läßt sich einen neuen Anzug machen.

____

2. Ich kann das nicht.

____

3. Wir stehen morgens immer sehr früh auf.

____

4. Der Chauffeur fährt den Wagen in die Garage.

____

5. Ich kann ihn nicht danach fragen.

____

6. Siehst du ihn kommen?

____

7. Wir fahren nicht vor 6 Uhr ab.

____

8. Der Schnee schmilzt.

____

9. Du brauchst es nicht zu glauben.

____

10. Woher wissen Sie das?

____

b. Form sentences in the perfect tense using the following material:

1. begegnen/treffen — Student-Professor

2. verfolgen/folgen — Polizei-Dieb

3. herangehen/sich nähern — Kind-Hund

4. ausweichen/überholen — Radfahrer-Fußgänger

5. sich entfernen/weggehen — Besucher

6. aufstehen/sich erheben — Publikum

c. Rewrite the following sentences in the perfect tense:

1. Das Auto biegt um die Ecke. Der Wind biegt die Bäume.

2. Er tritt ihr auf den Fuß. Er tritt aus dem Haus.

3. Er reitet ein schwarzes Pferd. Er reitet auf dem Pferd.

4. Wir ziehen nach Mainz um. Vor dem Essen ziehe ich mich um.

5. Das Mädchen tanzt durchs Zimmer. Das Ballett tanzt heute.

d. Indicate whether haben or sein is used to form the present and past perfect tenses by placing an + into the appropriate box:

	HABEN	SEIN
1. haben		
2. modal verbs: können, etc.		
3. sein, bleiben, werden		
4. transitive verbs; sehen, halten, etc.		
5. verbs denoting beginning or end of an action: beginnen, enden, etc.		
6. verbs denoting a change of state: verbrennen, etc.		
7. reflexive verbs: sich beeilen, sich freuen, etc.		
8. impersonal verbs: es regnet, es stinkt, etc.		
9. verbs only used impersonally geschehen, gelingen, with change of state		

3.172 Past Perfect Indicative

a. Summarize when the past perfect tense is used in English.

____

____

b. Restate the following sentences in the past perfect:

1. Das Haus brannte lange; es brannte schließlich ganz aus.

   ____

   ____

2. Die Blumen blühen den ganzen Sommer. Im Herbst verblühen sie.

   ____

   ____

3. Sie wachte am Bett des Kranken, der nicht aufwachte.

   ____

   ____

4. Die Tür schägt zu. Er schlägt die Tür wütend zu.

   ____

   ____

5. Die Arbeit ermüdete mich. Ich ermüde sehr schnell.

______

______

6. Die Gläser zerbrechen. Sie zerbricht das Glas.

______

______

7. Sie verbrannten den Brief. Nasses Holz verbrennt schlecht.

______

______

8. Das heiße Ol spritzt in der Pfanne. Es spritzt heraus.

______

______

9. Er muß verreisen; er will keine Geschäftsreise machen.

______

______

10. Sie erkrankten an Grippe. Dann kränkelten sie lange.

______

______

c. Translate the following sentences into German:

1. He had owned a car before.

______

2. His mother had died in 1925.

______

3. She had not been allowed to write him.

______

4. He had not wanted to go since she had stayed here.

______

5. She had startled him. He had run away fast.

______

6. Why had he not been able to consult us?

______

7. They had been sick for a long time.

______

8. We had seen him singing and dancing on stage.

______

9. Then you had become a teacher and married.

______

10. After they had gotten on the train it departed.

______

3.173 Future Indicative

a. What kinds of exercises can be designed to combat the transfer of English 'will' to German wollen instead of werden?

______

______

b. Rewrite the following sentences in the future tense:

1. Ich habe mich damit nicht einverstanden erklärt.

   ______

2. Er ging mit uns zum Rathaus und verhandelte für uns.

   ______

3. Sie sind nie pünktlich gewesen und immer zu spät gekommen.

   ______

4. Morgen frage ich ihn danach, und er muß mir antworten.

   ______

5. Wie erklärt man das, damit es alle verstehen?

   ______

6. Sie sind nicht gern allein, denn sich fürchten sich.

   ______

7. Er hat gesehen, daß wir recht behalten.

   ______

8. Sie muß zum Arbeitsamt und sich dort melden.

   ______

9. Wie kannst du das nur schaffen und bewältigen?

   ______

10. Heute haben wir viel zu tun und zu besprechen.

    ______

3.174 Future Perfect Indicative

a. Give a logical reason why the future perfect tense is quite rarely used in English and in German.

______

b. Examine three or more elementary textbooks of German and evaluate their explanation of the future tense as to 1. its frequency, 2. the place of its introduction in the sequence of structures, and 3. the relevance of the exercises.

______

______

______

3.175 Compound Tenses in the Subjunctive Mood

a. Explain why there is no synthetic past tense in subjunctive.

b. Is there a past expression of the subjunctive without ambiguity in English?

c. Form the past expression of the special or general subjunctive, as indicated:

1. Er war krank (spec.)
2. Sie gingen nicht gern dorthin (gen.)
3. Ich sah und begrüßte sie. (gen.)
4. Sie freuen sich darüber. (gen.)
5. Sie konnte es nicht verstehen. (spec.)
6. Du sollst ihm einen Brief schreiben. (gen.)
7. Sie kommen immer zu spät. (spec.)
8. Ich erschrak vor dem Lärm. (spec.)
9. Sie brauchen nicht zu arbeiten. (gen.)
10. Sie wurde dann Ärztin. (spec.)

3.18 Formation of Passive Voice

a. Why is the passive voice not formed for reflexive verbs whose subject and reflexive pronoun denote the same person?

b. Some textbooks state that the passive voice is not used often in English and German. Discuss the validity of this statement.

3.181 Tenses of the Passive Voice

a. Outline the structures which have to be mastered before the passive voice can be introduced.

b. Rewrite the following sentences using the passive voice in the structurally corresponding tenses:

1. Der Vater sah die Kinder im Garten.

____

2. Er wird mir ein neues Buch kaufen.

____

3. Ein starker Wind verursachte das Feuer.

____

4. Sie haben der Freundin Blumen zum Geburtstag geschenkt.

____

5. Der Arbeiter bat mich um eine Zigarette.

____

6. Man achtete nicht darauf.

____

7. Die Freunde haben dem Gastgeber gedankt.

____

8. Während des Essens lachte man viel.

____

9. Ihr seht uns nicht so bald wieder.

____

10. Sie werden viel Schönes auf der Reise erlebt haben.

____

c. Translate the following sentences into German, using the passive voice in the structurally corresponding tenses:

1. The medicine helped me immediately.

____

2. The whole house was being decorated with flowers.

____

3. There was much waiting and freezing in the camp.

____

4. The furniture is being removed from the house.

____

5. The city had been destroyed during the war.

____

6. They will become prepared for it.

____

7. It has been called the best book of the year.

____

8. People work very hard in Germany.

____

9. They were asked to report to the director.

____

10. He was asked when his work could be inspected.

____

d. Complete the passive sentences using von + dative case, or durch + accusative case, as appropriate:

1. Wir wurden ______ d___ Nachricht überrascht, daß er krank ist.
2. Der Brief wurde ______ d___ Mitarbeiter geschrieben.
3. Afrika wurde ______ ein___ Trockenheit heimgesucht.
4. Alle Papiere müssen ______ d___ Direktor unterzeichnet werden.
5. ______ ein___ Orkan wurde der Verkehr unterbrochen.
6. Der Vorgang wurde ______ unser___ Werkmeister erklärt.
7. Unser Grundstück wird ______ ein___ Zaun von den Nachbarn getrennt.
8. Ihr Haus war ______ ein___ Bombe zerstört worden.
9. Die Katastrophe wurde ______ d___ Eingreifen der Polizei verhindert.
10. ______ d___ Explosion wurde großer Schaden verursacht.

3.182 Future Passive and Passive with Modals

a. Evaluate the practical merit of introducing the future passive tense together with passive with modals.

____

b. Give the English translations and the German active voice of the following sentences:

1. Er muß von ihr gefragt worden sein.

____

____

2. Diese Wörter sollen von den Schülern bald gelernt werden.

____

____

3. Das Buch wird gekauft werden müssen.

____

____

4. Sie wird von uns nicht noch einmal gebeten werden.

____

____

5. Er wird ins Krankenhaus gebracht werden müssen.

____

____

6. Das kann von ihm nicht erwartet werden.

____

____

7. Hier sollte von den Angestellten viel gearbeitet werden.

____

____

8. Das Haus muß schon verkauft worden sein.

____

____

9. Das kann den Kindern nicht erlaubt worden sein.

____

____

10. Sie wollten nicht erkannt werden.

____

____

3.183 Alternate Expressions of Passive

a. Discuss at what stage of instruction the alternate expressions of passive can be introduced.

____

b. Form alternate expressions of the passive corresponding with the examples and their numbers in the COMPANION:

1. Das Buch kann man gut lesen.
   (1) ______________________________
   (2) ______________________________
   (5) ______________________________
2. Man bietet den Gästen Wein an.
   (3) ______________________________
3. Dieser Plan kann nicht ausgeführt werden.
   (6) ______________________________
   (5) ______________________________
   (4) ______________________________
   (2) ______________________________
4. Das Haus mußte nach seinen Plänen gebaut werden.
   (6) ______________________________
5. Der Uhrmacher repariert meine Uhr.
   (2) ______________________________
   (3) ______________________________
   (5) ______________________________

(6) ______

6. Seine Doktorarbeit wurde veröffentlicht.
   (2) ______
   (3) ______
   (4) ______
7. Diese Speise hält sich nicht lange.
   (5) ______
8. Ihre Befürchtungen wurden bewahrheitet.
   (1) ______
   (2) ______
9. Der Patient muß operiert werden.
   (2) ______
   (4) ______
   (5) ______
10. Seine Angst wurde verstärkt.
   (1) ______

3.19 Coordination of the Verb Phrase

a. Coordinate the verb phrases:

1. (und): Großvater konnte nicht lesen. Großvater konnte nicht schreiben.

   ______

2. (oder): Schneit es? Regnet es?

   ______

3. (sowohl...als auch): Sie wurde als Hexe verurteilt. Sie wurde auf dem Scheiterhaufen verbrannt.

   ______

4. (weder...noch): Sie wollte essen. Sie wollte trinken.

   ______

5. (nicht nur...sondern auch): Sie hat angerufen. Sie hat Blumen geschickt.

   ______

6. (aber nicht): Peter hat sie auf der Straße gesehen. Peter hat sie gegrüßt.

   ______

7. (nicht nur...sondern auch): Unser Haus muß renoviert werden. Unser Haus muß neu gestrichen werden.

   ______

8. (weder...noch): Man konnte ihm alles glauben. Man konnte ihm Geheimnisse anvertrauen.

____

9. (oder): Er ist mit dem Auto gereiset. Er ist mit dem Zug gefahren.

____

10. (weder...noch): Ich habe ihn erreichen können. Ich habe seine Adresse finden können.

____

b. Which of the above conjunctions also function as negations?

__________ __________

3.2 Use and Function of Forms in the Verb Phrase
3.21 Use of Tenses

a. Examine several elementary German textbooks for their description of the use of German tenses and give a critique. __________

____

____

b. Translate the following sentences into German and match them with the numbers and examples of chart 3.21 in the COMPANION:

1. A week ago, he still owned his car. ______

______________________________ ______

2. Will we be leaving for Grandma's house soon? ______

______________________________ ______

3. She waves to me each morning when I go by. ______

______________________________ ______

4. We were still preparing dinner when he arrived. ___/___

______________________________ ______

5. Only after he had crossed the bridge did he notice that he had forgotten his wallet. ___/___

____

______________________________ ___/___

6. Before I go to the office, I'll stop by the bank. ___/___

____

______________________________ ______

7. Will you take a bite? No, I have already eaten. ___/___

______________________________ ___/___

8. So he did sell it after all? I wonder why. ___/___

______________________________ ___/___

9. She had been seeing him often before he left. ___/___

______________________________ ___/___

10. The children are so noisy. They do annoy me. ____/____

____________________ ____/____

3.211 Use of Present Tense

a. In the exercises above, identify where you used the German present tense in your translation.

____

b. Translate the following sentences into idiomatic English and match your translation with the numbers (1)-(6) of chart 3.21:

1. Er arbeitet nicht mehr hier.

____________________ ________

2. Ich arbeite schon seit drei Jahren hier.

____________________ ________

3. Wir bleiben noch ein paar Minuten länger hier.

____________________ ________

4. Ich hoffe, er erwähnt den Unfall nicht.

____________________ ________

5. Nein, er kommt überhaupt nicht mehr hierher.

____________________ ________

6. Wir treffen ihn jeden Tag an der Haltestelle.

____________________ ________

7. Er ißt jetzt gerade sein Mittagessen.

____________________ ________

8. Er bittet uns schon seit Wochen darum.

____________________ ________

9. Wie lange warten Sie schon?

____________________ ________

10. Du arbeitest aber wirklich sehr viel!

____________________ ________

3.212 Use of Conversational Present Perfect

a. Write a short German dialogue of a telephone conversation you have with a friend. You call him to apologize that you did not visit him last night as you had promised. A chimney fire broke out in your house. You describe the action that occurred.

____

____

____

____

____

b. Summarize the instances in which you had to use a tense different from the corresponding English tense in your dialogue above.

3.213 Use of Narrative Past and Past Perfect

a. Evaluate exercises in elementary textbooks which assign sentences to be transposed into the different past tenses without context or indication of speech situation.

b. What types of stories can be used to show the use of the simple past and the past perfect?

3.214 Time Modifiers

a. What modifiers of time would you introduce in conjunction with the teaching of the narrative past and conversational present perfect?

b. Translate the following sentences into English and indicate in the margin whether the time modifier is a point-of-time (POT), an up-to-now (UPT) or an end-in-past-or-future (EPF) modifier. In the margin next to your English translation, give the number (from the chart in 3.21) of the tense you chose.

1. Wie lange arbeitest du schon daran?

2. Letzte Woche habe ich sie in der Oper gesehen.

3. Darauf kann er noch lange warten.

4. Ihr habt doch auch oft da eingekauft.

5. Heute vor einer Woche hatte er die Operation.

6. Wir müssen bald mit den Vorbereitungen beginnen.

7. Er hat das schon so häufig bemängelt.

8. Nein, ich bin noch nie in Paris gewesen.

9. Das ist doch schon so lange her.

10. Glaubst du, er fragt dich je danach?

11. Ja, sie hat wirklich dauernd mit ihm gestritten.

12. Nächstes Jahr macht er erst sein Examen.

13. Ich habe lange darüber nachgedacht.

14. Daran hat er noch nie gezweifelt.

15. Dürfen die Kinder jetzt spielen gehen?

3.215 Use of Future and Future Perfect

a. Is 'will' + infinitive present or infinitive perfect the only expression of future tenses in English?

b. Translate the following sentences into German:

1. He will have arrived in Berlin at noon.

2. I'm going to send it to you next week.

3. He certainly won't come back under these circumstances.

4. They will have cleared the road by tonight.

5. Will you be able to handle this alone?

6. He is going to look for it tomorrow.

7. They shall never see me again.

8. She will be taking her exams soon.

9. He will have been informed about it by Tuesday.

10. I will definitely remind him of it.

___

3.22 Use of Moods
3.221 Use of Indicative

a. Does the use of the indicative mood differ in English and German?

___

b. Give examples of imaginary or assumed circumstances in English which are expressed by the indicative mood.

___

___

3.222 Mood Modifiers

a. Summarize English mood modifiers as they correspond to German mood modifiers.

___

___

b. What emphatic mood modifier is used identically in English and German?

___

3.223 Use of Modal Verbs

a. Rewrite the following sentences in the structurally corresponding tenses by replacing the underlined expressions with the modal verbs können, mögen, möchte, müssen, wollen, sollen or dürfen:

1. Es ist nötig, daβ wir morgen die Rechnungen bezahlen.

   ___

2. Wir waren nicht in der Lage, dem Unsinn länger zuzuhören.

   ___

3. Er hatte geplant, im Sommer nach Frankreich zu reisen.

   ___

4. Ich habe den Auftrag, Ihnen diesen Brief zu übergeben.

   ___

5. Ich kann diese Frau nicht leiden.

   ___

6. Sind Sie befugt, das Labor zu betreten?

   ___

7. Man verlangte von uns, sofort das Haus zu verlassen.

   ___

8. Sie hat jetzt nicht den Wunsch, etwas zu essen.

   ___

9. Hatten Sie die Absicht, mit ihm zu sprechen?

____

10. Es ist die Pficht der Polizei, dem Verletzten zu helfen.

____

b. Rewrite the following factual, objective sentences by forming subjective assumptions using the modal verbs and werden (some sentences allow several possibilities):

1. Diese Tatsachen sind umstritten.

____

2. Er behauptete, daß er sie noch nie gesehen hat.

____

3. Dort kommt sie; sie hat den Termin nicht vergessen.

____

4. Der Mann hat mich mit jemandem verwechselt.

____

5. Sie sind nicht dazu gezwungen worden.

____

6. Er hat den Brief noch nicht gelesen.

____

7. Wie ich höre, sind die Gäste nach Mitternacht angekommen.

____

8. Diese Bestimmungen sind erst gestern erlassen worden.

____

9. Er findet das Problem unlösbar.

____

10. Sie haben es in der Zeitung gelesen.

____

3.2231 Objective and Subjective Meaning

a. How can the distinction between objective and subjective meaning of modal verbs be explained in the classroom?

____

____

b. Since structural items are usually introduced gradually in foreign language classes, contextual indicators and relationships are frequently ignored. How can this be remedied?

____

____

3.2232 Infinitive Complements

a. Translate the following sentences into English and indicate in the margin whether they are objective or subjective:

1. Das Buch soll völlig vergriffen sein.

2. Wer Arzt werden will, muß Latein lernen.

3. Er kann nicht in Amerika gewesen sein.

4. Sie will seit Jahren hier gelebt haben.

5. Du sollst mich endlich in Ruhe lassen!

6. Er konnte nicht verhört werden.

7. Sie mögen es unverständlich gefunden haben.

8. Er will darüber informiert werden.

9. Sie haben nicht nach Afrika reisen können.

10. Wie alt mag er beim Tod seines Vaters gewesen sein?

b. Translate the following sentences into German and note in the margin whether the meaning is objective or subjective:

1. There is a light in his room; he may be home.

2. He claimed to have refused the offer.

3. They had not been able to welcome the guests.

4. She should have had more sense.

5. Reportedly, they are enormously rich.

6. They could have called us beforehand.

7. Will you be able to remember it? ____________

____

8. She might have been pretty when she was young. ____________

____

9. You must do that in any case. ____________

____

10. Children are supposed to be seen but not heard. ____________

____

3.2233 Other Complements of Modals

a. Delete the unnecessary infinitives in the following sentences;

1. Heute möchte ich viel Post erhalten.
2. Sie muß mindestens eine Woche im Krankenhaus bleiben.
3. Wir wollen in den nächsten Ferien an die Ostsee fahren.
4. Er muß unbedingt einen neuen Mantel haben.
5. Die schmelzende Butter muß sofort in den Eisschrank gelegt werden.
6. Du sollst sofort nach Haus kommen.
7. In diesem kalten Wetter will er kein Bier trinken, er möchte lieber einen heißen Tee haben.
8. Nach der Reise können die Koffer in den Keller gebracht werden.
9. Ich habe keine Zeit, ich muß sofort aus dem Haus gehen.
10. Er soll jetzt endlich seine Suppe aufessen.

b. The modal verb können is translated as 'know' when followed by an accusative object denoting a skill, most frequently a language. However, kennen-kannte-gekannt and wissen-wußte-gewußt are also translated as English 'know.' Complete the sentences with the proper German word:

1. Ich ____________ nicht, wo er wohnt.
2. Nein, er ____________ diesen Autor nicht.
3. Damals ____________ wir noch kein Französisch.
4. ____________ du, ob der Postbote schon hier war?
5. Wir hatten uns viel zu erzählen, denn er ____________ unsere Heimatstadt.
6. Sie ____________ die Wörter nicht, obwohl sie die Sprache ____________.
7. Er ____________, daß er bald gerufen würde.
8. Woher ____________ Sie, daß er nur schlecht Spanisch ____________.
9. Er ____________ Beethovens Werk gut, obwohl er keine Noten ____________.

10. Wir haben sie gut ____________ und auch ____________, wo sie arbeitete.

3.2234 Modals in Imperatives

a. Rewrite the following imperatives with modals:

1. Kaufe ihm doch das Buch!
____
2. Gebt mir endlich den Brief!
____
3. Machen Sie sich bitte eine Notiz darüber!
____
4. Koche doch bitte meine Lieblingsspeise!
____
5. Nun schreibt ihm doch endlich einen Brief!
____
6. Streitet nicht immerfort!
____
7. Hör' auf, sie zu ärgern!
____
8. Sei immer freundlich und hilfsbereit!
____
9. Fangt jetzt bitte mit eurer Arbeit an!
____
10. Nimm ihm die schreckliche Trompete weg!
____

b. Rewrite the following as polite questions in the indicative and subjunctive:

1. Ich bitte Sie um einen Gefallen.
____
____
2. Sagen Sie mir, wo die Bank ist!
____
____
3. Womit diene ich Ihnen?
____
____
4. Er fragt Sie nach der Adresse.
____
____

5. Wir kommen um 7 Uhr.

____

____

6. Wir bitten dich um einen guten Rat.

____

____

7. Beschreiben Sie mir den Weg zur Post!

____

____

8. Informiert ihn bitte rechtzeitig davon!

____

____

9. Erzählen Sie mir, wie das geschehen ist?

____

____

10. Bitte hilf ihnen!

____

____

3.2235 Idiomatic Use of Individual Modals

a. Complete the following sentences with the proper form of wollen, mögen or möchte.

1. Wer __________ mit mir schwimmen gehen?
2. Ich __________ bitte zwei Pfund Orangen.
3. __________ Sie moderne Malerei?
4. __________ du Kaffee oder Tee?
5. Sie __________ jetzt keinen Wein, sie muß noch fahren.
6. Wir haben das Leben in Großstädten nie __________.
7. Bald __________ er wieder eine Reise machen.
8. Zuerst __________ ich ihn gar nicht.
9. Wo __________ Sie Ihr neues Haus bauen?
10. Um welche Zeit __________ du zu Abend essen?

b. Complete the following sentences with the appropriate negation of müssen:

1. Sie sind nun geheilt. Sie __________ nicht mehr ins Krankenhaus zu kommen.
2. Wer zwingt Sie? Sie __________ das Haus doch nicht zu kaufen.
3. Das __________ Sie auf keinen Fall tun.
4. Ich habe ihn um 5 Uhr in der Uni gesehen. Er __________ also zu der Zeit nicht zu Haus gewesen sein.

5. Sie ist als seine Witwe gut versorgt und __________ sich um ihr Alter keine Sorgen zu machen.
6. Man __________ bei rotem Licht der Ampel nicht weiterfahren.
7. Ich habe meine Aufgaben fertig. Jetzt __________ ich nichts mehr zu tun.
8. Heute __________ wir nicht arbeiten.
9. Sie muß das gewußt haben. So dumm __________ sie nicht gewesen sein.
10. Diese Rechnung __________ ich noch nicht bezahlen.

c. Translate the following sentences into German:

1. You don't have to insult him; rather you should pity him.

____

2. These factors should not be forgotten.

____

3. You must not forget that they were not allowed to join.

____

4. He does not have to send her a gift.

____

5. We don't have to go right now, but we should not stay too long.

____

6. He cannot have forgotten the appointment again. It must be on his calendar.

____

____

7. They must not have understood him at all.

____

8. You should not waste energy.

____

9. He must not have reported it on time.

____

10. He is old enough. He does not have to ask permission.

____

d. Replace müssen by haben zu or sein zu:

1. Du mußt es wirklich glauben.

____

2. Ich weiß, daß dieser Brief beantwortet werden muß.

____

3. Darüber mußte er immer entscheiden.

____

4. Das müssen wir unbedingt genau überlegen.

5. Die Besprechung muß vertagt werden.

3.224 Use of General Subjunctive
3.2241 Unreal Conditions

a. Form unreal conditions from the real conditions below:

1. Er warnte mich. Das Auto hat mich nicht überfahren.

2. Ich gebe dir das Buch nicht. Ich finde es nicht.

3. Es gibt immer wieder Kriege. Die Menschen sind unglücklich.

4. Die Tür ist verschlossen. Sie sind nicht zu Haus.

5. Der Student war faul. Er hat die Prüfung nicht bestanden.

6. Ich habe keine Zeit. Ich kann nicht hierbleiben.

7. Das Wetter ist schlecht. Wir gehen nicht spazieren.

8. Er war vorsichtig. Er wurde nicht bestohlen.

9. Du bist krank. Dein Freund kümmert sich um dich.

10. Sie kommen zu spät. Es gibt nichts mehr zu essen.

b. Replace the underlined prepositional phrases with a conditional clause with and without wenn:

1. Bei schönem Wetter hätte man eine herrliche Aussicht.

2. Ohne Bart sähe er sehr jung aus.

3. Mit genauer Beachtung des Rezepts wäre ihr Kuchen gelungen.

4. Ohne seine Einwilligung hätten wir nichts tun können.

5. An Ihrer Stelle hätte ich mir das nicht gefallen lassen.

6. Unter erfreulicheren Umständen würden wir gern mitmachen.

7. Ohne den Rat des Arztes wäre sie verzweifelt.

8. Für deinen Beistand wäre ich dir sehr dankbar.

9. Mit besserer Vorbereitung könnte der Plan gelingen.

10. Mit seinem Versprechen hätte ich ihm vertraut.

3.2242 Unreal Wishes

a. Form unreal wishes with or without wenn:

1. Wir haben keine Zeit.

2. Er wartet nicht auf mich.

3. Ich habe ein defektes Auto gekauft.

4. Sie haben das nicht gewußt.

5. Wir haben ihn nicht erreichen können.

6. Er ist krank und liegt im Krankenhaus.

7. Man kann sein Leben nicht noch einmal beginnen.

8. Das haben Sie uns nicht gleich gesagt.

9. Die Wartezeit vergeht langsam.

10. Ich habe das vergessen.

b. Form unreal wishes introduced by Ich wollte...or Ich wünschte...:

1. Ich kann dir auch nicht helfen.

2. Die Woche hat keine drei Sonntage.

3. Er hat zu viel Bier getrunken.

4. Die Operation liegt noch vor mir.

5. Sie sind zu schnell gefahren.

6. Du kannst heute nicht zu Haus bleiben.

7. Wir müssen zu viele Steuern zahlen.

8. Er hat es mir gleich erzählt.

9. Sie bestehen darauf, mich zu treffen.

10. Ich bekomme immer unerfreuliche Nachrichten.

3.2243 Unreal Comparisons

a. Form unreal comparisons with the general subjunctive from the infinitives in parentheses. A change to the opposite is not necessary here:

1. Tu doch nicht so, als ob (nicht wissen, worum es geht)!

2. Der Stoff fühlt sich an, als (Seide sein).

3. Mir ist, als (krank werden).

4. Er hat den Eindruck, als (man ihn betrügen wollen).

5. Du stellst dich, als (noch nie gehört haben).

6. Es scheint, als (das Haus unbewohnt sein).

7. Sie benahm sich, als (ihre Existenz in Gefahr sein).

8. Es sieht so aus, als (das Geschäft besser gehen).

9. Mir war zumute, als (eine Last von mir genommen werden).

10. Sie machen den Eindruck, als (sie es unangenehm finden).

b. Transform the real comparisons into unreal comparisons:

1. Er lebt wie ein Millionär.

2. Sie benahm sich wie seine Mutter.

3. Der Ring sieht aus wie Gold.

4. Er arbeitet wie eine Maschine.

5. Sie singt wie eine Krähe.

c. Complete the sentences with so or solch- and form unreal comparisons from the infinitives in parentheses:

1. Er aß mit Heißhunger (seit Tagen nichts mehr gegessen haben).

2. Es ist unordentlich (Vandalen einbrechen).

3. Der Ausländer spricht gut (Deutsch seine Muttersprache sein).

4. Sie machten Krach (ihr Leben bedroht werden).

5. Die Autos sausten (die Schallmauer durchbrechen können).

3.224 Other Uses of General Subjunctive

a. Replace the indicative in the relative clause with the general subjunctive:

1. Es gibt niemanden, der das übernehmen kann.

2. Wir trafen niemanden, den wir fragen konnten.

3. Es gibt kaum einen Fehler, der nicht gemacht wurde.

4. Niemand war da, der bereit war, es zu tun.

5. Er trug einen Anzug, der seinem Vater gehören kann.

b. Rewrite the following sentences as doubtful questions:

1. Er hat wirklich kein Geld.

2. Ich will das tun.

3. Sie können ihn nicht besuchen.

4. Man muß pünktlich ankommen.

5. Sie haben das zu bestimmen.

c. Translate the following sentences into German, using the past expression of the general subjunctive to indicate a disastrous action or event that nearly occurred.

1. He nearly drowned in the river while fishing.

2. During the operation she nearly died.

3. My soup nearly boiled over.

4. The woman was nearly struck by the car.

5. They nearly threw him out of school.

6. You nearly spilled your coffee over my books.

7. I nearly fainted of fright.

8. He nearly returned empty-handed.

9. You nearly missed your train this morning.

10. The thief was nearly caught by the police.

3.225 Use of Special Subjunctive
3.2251 Indirect Speech

a. At what stage of German instruction should the indirect discourse in the indicative be introduced?

b. Transform the following sentences into indirect speech:

Er erzählte uns:

1. "Der Vorschlag stammt von mir; ich halte ihn für vernünftig."
2. "Ich war gestern bei meinen Eltern und traf euren Bruder."
3. "Ich konnte mich nicht zu der Reise entschließen."
4. "Meine Freunde fahren nach Italien und kommen im März zurück."
5. "Sie bestehen darauf, daß ich mit ihnen mitkomme."
6. "Letztes Jahr waren sie in Spanien und verlebten schöne Tage."
7. "Ich hatte mir vorgenommen, hierzubleiben."
8. "Jetzt weiß ich wirklich nicht, was ich machen soll."
9. "Meine Frau will unseren Kindern Deutschland zeigen."
10. "Die Kinder kennen ihre Heimat kaum und waren noch nie in Berlin."

c. Change the direct speech or infinitive construction into indirect speech:

1. Er rief uns zu: "Ihr kommt gerade recht. Ich brauche Hilfe."
2. Er bat uns, ihm den Spaten zu geben und den Zaun zu halten.
3. Sie behauptete, ihn noch nie gesprochen zu haben.
4. Er versprach uns, sich für unsere Interessen einzusetzen.

5. Sie fragten mich: "Wann können Sie das erledigen?"

6. Er schrie ihr zu: "Paβ auf! Der Hund ist bissig!"

7. Ich fragte dich: "Kann ich mit deiner Unterstüzung rechnen?"

8. Sie versprach, sich zu bessern und fleiβiger zu arbeiten.

9. Ich beschwor ihn: "Ruf mich an und gib mir Bescheid!"

10. Er fragte uns: "Was halten Sie von der Angelegenheit?"

11. Sie bekamen den Befehl, sofort zurückzukehren.

12. Er warf ihr vor, sich zu viel vorgenommen zu haben.

13. Er gab ihr sein Wort, sie nie zu verlassen.

14. Der Direktor fragte sie: "Bis wann können Sie bleiben?"

15. Der Arzt sagte dem Patienten: "Tief atmen! Luft anhalten!"

16. Ich rate dir, sofort zu ihm zu gehen und das Geld zurückzugeben.

17. Er fragte: "Muβ ich das denn heute noch schaffen?"

18. Wir versprachen, es für uns zu behalten.

19. Er fragt seine Frau: "Wie war es dir denn möglich?"

20. Er hielt uns vor, ihm seinen Plan zerstört zu haben.

3.2252 Other Uses of the Special Subjunctive

a. Give examples of formulas in English with verb forms in the special subjunctive mood.

b. What is the formal relationship between special subjunctive and comparative in English?

____

3.226 Use of Imperative

Translate the following imperatives into English and identify the grammatical structure:

1. Achtung! Vorsicht bei der Abfahrt des Zuges!

____

____

2. Alles einsteigen! Türen schließen!

____

____

3. Bleiben Sie gesund! Grüßen Sie Ihren Mann vor mir!

____

____

4. Ihr sollt euch schämen! Ihr müßt um Verzeihung bitten!

____

____

5. Langsam fahren! Auf die Umleitung achten!

____

____

6. Aufgewacht! Aufgestanden! Angetreten! Angezogen!

____

____

7. Du bist so freundlich und gibst mir das Buch!

____

____

8. Jetzt wird gekocht und dann abgewaschen!

____

____

9. Langsamer und deutlicher!

____

____

10. Ihr werdet jetzt still sein und schlafen!

____

____

11. Gehen wir! Fragen wir ihn! Beeilen wir uns!

____

____

12. Sie sind so gut und helfen mir!

13. Laß uns daran denken und es nicht vergessen!

14. Ihr wollt jetzt Ordnung schaffen!

15. Das Licht ist jetzt auszumachen!

16. Du hast jetzt zu schweigen!

17. Es wird jetzt gearbeitet!

18. Antworten! Aufmachen!

19. Erschrick ihn nicht damit!

20. Schaffen wir uns neue Möbel an!

3.23 Use of Voices
3.231 Use of Active Voice

a. In what stylistic situations is the emphasis on the originator of actions?

b. Are the distinctions between actions, processes and states of being relevant in English?

c. In your German readings, observe under what circumstances the active voice is used.

3.232 Use of Passive Voice

a. Formulate general statements by using the English passive voice in the structurally corresponding tense:

1. Man telefoniert heute mehr als früher.

2. In dem neuen Kaufhaus kaufe ich gern.

3. Damals hat man viel Sport getrieben.

4. Viele Leute benutzen die öffentlichen Verkehrsmittel.

5. Man diskutierte lebhaft in den Hörsälen.

6. Dafür muß man viel Geld ausgeben.

7. Man sollte Sonderangebote mehr ausnützen.

8. Zum Fest versende ich viele Glückwunschkarten.

9. Trotz aller Warnungen rauchen sie noch immer.

10. Man glaubte ihm das nicht.

b. Rewrite the following instructions and rules with the passive voice:

1. Im Deutschen schreibt man Substantive groß.

2. Die Postleitzahl schreibt man links vor den Ort.

3. Man soll fünf Eier mit einem Pfund Zucker verrühren.

4. Man steckt den Schlüssel in den Anlasser und startet den Motor.

5. Vor dem Backen und Braten wärmt man den Ofen an.

6. Man muß die elektrische Leitung gut isolieren.

7. Zitate setzt man in Anführungszeichen.

____

8. 'Saal' schreibt man mit zwei A, nicht mit einem.

____

9. Diese Uhr muß man jeden Tag aufziehen.

____

10. Vor dem Sonnenbad soll man die Haut mit Öl schützen.

____

c. Replace the underlined parts of the following sentences with daß clauses in the passive voice:

1. Ich bestehe auf der schnellen Bereinigung des Problems.
   Ich bestehe darauf, daß ______________________________

2. Er hat sich nicht mit der Ausweisung abgefunden.
   Er hat sich nicht damit abgefunden, daß ______________________________

3. Ich bin mit seiner sofortigen Abfindung einverstanden.
   Ich bin damit einverstanden, daß ______________________________

4. Sie setzte sich für die Abschaffung der Steuern ein.
   Sie setzte sich dafür ein, daß ______________________________

5. Wir garantieren schnelle Ausführung aller Reparaturen.
   Wir garantieren, daß ______________________________

6. Niemand glaubt an die baldige Friedensschließung.
   Niemand glaubt daran, daß ______________________________

7. Der Abbruch der Verhandlungen wird allgemein bedauert.
   Man bedauert allgemein, daß ______________________________

8. Wir begrüßen die Wiederaufnahme der Besprechungen.
   Wir begrüßen es, daß ______________________________

9. Man forderte eine zehnprozentige Lohnerhöhung für die Bergarbeiter.
   Man forderte, daß ______________________________

10. Die Ernennung von Dr. Müller zum Direktor gilt als sicher.
    Es gilt als sicher, daß ______________________________

3.24 Use of Non-Finite Forms

3.241 Use of Infinitive

a. Rewrite in the perfect tense the following sentences:

1. Er will das berühmte Theaterstück sehen.

____

2. Sie hilft mir den Aufsatz schreiben.

3. Sie sah ihn nicht, aber sie hörte ihn singen.

4. Bald lasse ich mir meine Haare schneiden.

5. Er braucht uns nur danach zu fragen.

6. Wir gehen gern mit ihnen tanzen.

7. Du brauchst es nicht zu essen, wenn du nicht willst.

8. Die Schüler lernen Englisch sprechen und lesen.

9. Mein Bruder ließ mich lange warten.

10. Er kommt uns bald besuchen.

b. Translate into German.

1. He had his car fixed by a mechanic.

2. We have heard her crying.

3. They had wanted to remain at home longer.

4. You need not come this afternoon.

5. He will help me clean the house.

6. He had been supposed to pay it all.

7. She has never learned to paint.

8. The young man helped the lady carry her bag.

9. They remained seated when the director entered.

10. She will want to make a bet.

3.2411 Use of Infinitive with zu

Translate the following sentences into German, using the infinitive with zu:

1. He promised to take care of it soon.

   ______

2. The doctor ordered him to smoke less.

   ______

3. Have you received her permission to take her car?

   ______

4. It is impossible to live without money.

   ______

5. We expected last week to be able to move.

   ______

6. I'm sorry not to have informed you about it.

   ______

7. She claimed to have been nominated for the position.

   ______

8. It's not easy to live through a hard winter.

   ______

9. He believes not to have made any mistakes this time.

   ______

10. Why did you forbid them to leave the house?

    ______

3.242 Use of Past Participle

a. Identify the function of the past participles in the sentences below as (1) in compound tenses, (2) in passive voice, (3) adjective specifying a noun, (4) noun, (5) complement of linking verbs or (6) adverb:

1. Sie errötete verlegen. ______
2. Er hat das umstrittene Problem besprochen. ___/___
3. Der Kranke ist von der Schwester versorgt worden. ___/___/___
4. Seine Antwort klang verlogen. ______
5. Der verlorene Sohn kehrt betrübt heim. ___/___
6. Morgen treffen wir uns noch unbekannte Verwandte. ___/___
7. Sie konnte die aufgeschobene Arbeit ungehindert beenden. ___/___
8. Durch sein unüberlegtes Handeln wurde ihr Verhältnis ungemein gestört. ___/___
9. Peters Versetzung ist gefährdet. ______

10. Das unberührte Essen stand verlassen auf dem schön gedeckten Tisch. ___/___/___

b. Rewrite the following sentences with sein or wirken plus past participle to indicate a state of being:

1. Haben Sie meine Schuhe schon besohlt?

___

2. Der Gast sieht aus, als wenn er sich betrunken hat.

___

3. Der Schaden wurde gleich behoben.

___

4. Mit diesem Haus verbinden sich viele Erinnerungen.

___

5. Werden sie auch eingeladen?

___

6. Es wirkt so, als wenn niemand in diesem Haus wohnt.

___

7. Große Wälder umgeben die Stadt.

___

8. Man hat die Bibliothek renoviert.

___

9. Es scheint, daß er sich mit ihr versöhnt hat.

___

10. Sie haben ihre Koffer schon gepackt.

___

3.243 Use of Present Participle

a. Rewrite the following sentences using sein + present participle:

1. Dieser Schluß liegt nahe.

___

2. Das Buch unterhält und belehrt zugleich.

___

3. An heißen Tagen erfrischt ein kaltes Bad.

___

4. Ein gutes Buch regt den Geist an.

___

5. Diese Tabletten linderten den Schmerz.

___

6. Der Lärm unserer Nachbarn stört sehr.

7. Man behauptet, Musik steigere die Leistung.

8. Ihre Hilflosigkeit erregte Mitleid.

9. Auspuffgase verunreinigen die Luft.

10. Kräutertee reinigt das Blut.

b. Rewrite the following sentences with sein + present participle + für and accusative, or with wirken + present participle + auf and accusative:

1. Lange Spaziergänge ermüden alte Leute.

2. Seine Kritik lähmte den Arbeitseifer.

3. Die Todesstrafe soll Kriminelle abschrecken.

4. Die Schicksalsschläge entmutigen ihn.

5. Seine Ungepflegtheit stieß uns ab.

6. Diese Arbeit strengt mich zu sehr an.

7. Die Rede beruhigte die aufgeregten Zuhörer.

8. Die Menge des Materials verwirrte die Studenten.

9. Deine Bemerkung hat die Freunde beleidigt.

10. Seine schlechte Laune hemmte unsere Festtagsstimmung.

3.3 The Verb Phrase as a Syntactical Unit
3.31 Predicate

a. Circle the predicate in the sentences below:

1. Wir müssen heute zeitig aufbrechen.
2. Sie sieht blaβ aus.
3. Wir hätten darüber befragt werden müssen.
4. Der Bericht war wirklich erschütternd.
5. Früher war sie eine bekannte Schauspielerin.
6. Das Thema ist gestern nicht besprochen worden.
7. Man hat ihn ungehindert gehen lassen.
8. Ich fahre erst morgen um neun Uhr ab.
9. Sie rannte schreiend aus dem Haus.
10. Man muβ hier schwer arbeiten.

b. Write the adverbs from the sentences above in the spaces below:

1. Adverb = adjective: ________ ________ ________ ________
2. Adverb = present participle: ________
3. Adverb = past participle: ________

3.311 Finite Verb

a. Why are sentences containing only a subject and a predicate relatively rare in English and in German?

____

b. Some uncomplemented verbs indicate a capacity, such as sehen 'to be able to see, not blind.' Give examples of such verbs. What do such verbs describe when they are complemented?

____

____

3.312 Finite Verb + Infinitive

a. Why does the infinitive in accusative + infinitive constructions not belong to the predicate?

____

b. Write infinitive + zu constructions replacing either the subject or the object of the sentences below:

1. Die richtige Erziehung von Kindern ist schwer.

____

2. Tägliche Wiederholung des Gelernten ist wichtig.

____

3. Der Student beginnt mit der Arbeit für die Prüfung.

____

4. Er freut sich auf das Wiedersehen mit seinen Freunden.

5. Selbstbeherrschung ist nicht immer leicht.

6. Wir planen eine Reise nach Europa.

7. Er bemüht sich um eine Anstellung nach Schulabschluß.

8. Sie erstrebte ein besseres Verständnis der Dichtersprache.

9. Der Besuch dieses Museums war für uns ein hoher Genuß.

10. Die Leute wünschen ein baldiges Wiederhören des Konzerts.

3.313 Finite Verb + Past Participle

a. Formulate a rule on how to recognize a past participle belonging to the predicate.

b. Circle the predicate in the following sentences and indicate those past participles which function as adverbs:

1. Sie fragte betrübt nach den Ereignissen der Flucht.
2. Leider sind die Blusen schon ausverkauft.
3. Gestern haben wir die große Wohnung vermietet.
4. Seine Antwort klang verlogen.
5. Erschrocken öffnete sie die Tür.
6. Das Fleisch soll ganz durchgebraten werden.
7. Der Onkel scheint bei den Kindern sehr beliebt.
8. Er schlich sich ungesehen aus dem Haus.
9. Die Mutter rief besorgt nach ihren Kindern.
10. Unerschrocken stellte er sich dem Feind.

3.314 Finite Verb + Present Participle

Circle the predicate in the following sentences and indicate those present participles which function as adverbs:

1. Diese Predigt war wirklich erhebend.
2. Sie scheint nicht nur intelligent, sondern auch bezaubernd.
3. Er sprach beruhigend auf die Kinder ein.
4. Die Nachricht war für unseren Entschluß entscheidend.

5. Sein Benehmen wirkt beleidigend auf die Zuschauer. ______
6. Sie bemühte sich rührend um die kranke Mutter. ______
7. Dieses Buch wirkt erschütternd auf die Leser. ______
8. Drohend schrie er seine Warnung. ______
9. Sie berichteten weinend von dem Verlust ihrer Heimat. ______
10. Nur zögernd konnten wir uns dazu entschließen. ______

3.315-3.316 Finite Verb + Adjective/Nominative

a. Circle the predicate adjectives, predicate nominatives and adverbs in the following sentences:

1. Wir sind mit dem Ergebnis nicht zufrieden.
2. Diese Figur heißt ein Kreis; er ist rund.
3. Sie sieht unerfreulich blaß aus, sie scheint krank.
4. Sie sind nach der Arbeit immer sehr müde.
5. Gestern ist er Vater einer kleinen Tochter geworden.
6. Freundlich begrüßten wir die Gäste.
7. Sie wurde gelb vor Neid und rot vor Wut.
8. Kinder sind oft unartig und undankbar.
9. Sie ist tatsächlich eine gute Kundin geblieben.
10. Du mußt die Nachricht geheim halten und darüber still sein.

b. By placing a + in the appropriate box, indicate which complements the verbs below can have in the the predicate:

VERB	PREDICATE						
	ALONE	+INF.	+INF.+zu	+PAST P.	+PRES. P.	+ADJ.	+NOMIN.
1. singen							
2. scheinen							
3. sein							
4. brauchen							
5. klingen							
6. haben							
7. wirken							
8. werden							

3.317 Constituents of the Predicate

Circle the predicate and indicate the types of complements it contains:

1. Werden wir denn nicht gefragt werden?

   ____

2. Man hätte das nicht von ihm erwarten sollen.

   ____

3. Werden Sie es ihm dann abkaufen?

   ____

4. Gestern ist der Film leider nicht gezeigt worden.

   ____

5. Warum hat die Arbeit um 5 Uhr abgeliefert werden müssen?

   ____

6. Caesar kam, sah und siegte.

   ____

7. Sie wirkte klug, besonnen und besonders vernünftig.

   ____

8. Das sollten sie auch erlebt haben.

   ____

9. Damals war er zum Vorsitzenden gewählt worden.

   ____

10. Das hätte nicht geschehen dürfen.

   ____

3.32 Congruence of Subject and Predicate

a. Is there a difference between the rules of congruence in English and German? ______________________________

b. Complete the sentences below using the given verbs in the appropriate person and number:

1.	sein	Im letzten Winter __________ eine Anzahl Äpfel verfault.
2.	müssen	Der Direktor oder sein Assistent __________ den Vertrag unterschreiben.
3.	sich trennen	Ich höre, du und Anne __________ __________.
4.	glauben	Nicht nur die Kandidaten, sondern auch die Partei __________ an den Wahlsieg.
5.	sollen	Du und mein Bruder __________ öfter miteinander arbeiten.
6.	sein	Zum Bau der Pyramiden __________ eine Unmenge von Sklaven erforderlich.
7.	kennen	Meine Eltern und ihr __________ einander schon seit langem.

8. haben — Weder sein Sohn noch seine Tochter __________ im Leben Erfolg gehabt.

9. nehmen — Meine Frau und ich __________ Ihre Einladung gern an.

10. planen — Sowohl Familie Meier wie auch ich __________, dich im Sommer zu besuchen.

3.33 Valence of the Predicate

a. Indicate whether the deletion of the underlined parts of speech in the following English sentences renders the sentences grammatical, ungrammatical, or changes their meaning:

	GRAMMATICAL	UNGRAMMATICAL	CHANGE OF MEANING
1. He seems like a nice guy.			
2. I must leave.			
3. He has his car washed.			
4. She is working in a factory.			
5. We request her response.			
6. They lived in Paris then.			
7. We watched the game.			
8. It is getting warm.			
9. The soldiers were slain.			
10. They continued to work.			

b. In the sentences above, which verb has

1. an obligatory predicate nominative __________
2. an obligatory direct object __________
3. a non-obligatory direct object __________
4. an obligatory prepositional object __________
5. a non-obligatory prepositional phrase __________
6. an obligatory infinitive __________
7. a non-obligatory infinitive __________
8. an obligatory past participle __________
9. a non-obligatory past participle __________
10. an obligatory predicate adjective __________

3.331 Subject

Give the semantic specification of the subjects of the following verbs:

1. sprechen __________________________

2. kochen ______________________________
3. unterrichten ______________________________
4. erleben ______________________________
5. suchen ______________________________
6. eilen ______________________________
7. geschehen ______________________________
8. verzichten ______________________________
9. schneien ______________________________
10. schreiben ______________________________

3.332 Object

a. In the sentences below, circle the obligatory complements and cross out the facultative complements:

1. Damals bewohnte er eine schäbige Dachkammer in München.
2. Sie gab ihm ein Stück ihres Apfels ab.
3. Wir haben ihn schon im Mai an sein Verprechen erinnert.
4. Der Direktor bat die Angestellten des Betriebs um Geduld.
5. Sie hat ihren Fehler bei der Abrechnung nicht zugegeben.
6. Der Zug hält am Bahnsteig 8 um 9:45.
7. Letzten Winter hat es drei Monate lang dauernd geschneit.
8. Meine Eltern haben bei Verwandten in Hamburg gelebt.
9. Der Arbeiter fragte mich nach dem Weg zum Flughafen.
10. Gestern hat sich Hans mit Petra verlobt.

b. Give the number of obligatory complements of the verbs below and, in parentheses, the facultative complements, as well as an example:

1. verstehen __________ ______________________________
2. erinnern __________ ______________________________
3. verzeihen __________ ______________________________
4. hageln __________ ______________________________
5. besuchen __________ ______________________________
6. erkranken __________ ______________________________
7. stehlen __________ ______________________________
8. lieben __________ ______________________________
9. fahren __________ ______________________________
10. lehren __________ ______________________________

c. Give examples of verbs which match the valences below:

1. S only ______ ______ ______
2. S+AO ______ ______ ______
3. S+AO+AO ______ ______ ______
4. S+DO ______ ______ ______
5. S+DO+AO ______ ______ ______
6. S+AO+PO ______ ______ ______
7. S+DO+PO ______ ______ ______
8. S+PO ______ ______ ______

3.3321 Predicates with Accusative Object

a. What is the accusative object commonly called in English?

____

b. Rewrite the sentences below by transforming the prepositional phrase into an accusative object and supplying the verbs with the prefix be- or durch:

1. Der Autofahrer achtete nicht auf den Fußgänger.

____

2. Der Zug fuhr ohne zu halten durch die Stadt.

____

3. Der Auto schreibt über sein Leben in der Autobiographie.

____

4. Wir hängen heute die neuen Bilder an die Wand.

____

5. Sie legte Apfelscheiben auf die Obsttorte.

____

6. Gestern eilten Soldaten durch unsere Stadt.

____

7. Der Vater dachte nicht an seine Kinder.

____

8. Er singt von der Schönheit des Frühlings.

____

9. Unverletzt lebte er durch das Erdbeben.

____

10. Das neue Buch handelt von einer jungen Liebe.

____

c. Write sentences in the simple past tense using the words/phrases below:

1. Arbeiter, Brücke, sprengen; in die Luft, springen.

2. Arzt, krankes Kind, in Bett, legen; sehr still liegen.

3. Bauer, Kühe, tränken; trinken.

4. Mein Sohn, Geld, verschwenden; schnell verschwinden.

5. Sturm, Schiff, versenken; im Ozean, versinken.

6. Hund, Kind, erschrecken; erschrecken und weinen.

7. Kind, Puppe, auf Stuhl setzen; immer noch da, sitzen.

8. Du, Kleider, in Schrank hängen; ordentlich hängen.

9. Er, Auto. in Schatten, stellen; später, in Sonne, stehen.

10. Arbeiter, Baum, fällen; laut, fallen.

d. Circle the accusative object(s) in the following sentences:

1. Einen Dummkopf nannte sie ihn.
2. Wir übergaben unseren Brüdern die Verantwortung.
3. Würden Sie mir bitte die Kosten Ihrer Dienste nennen?
4. Sein Vater hat ihn die Buchführung gelehrt.
5. Unseren Gastgeber kostete das Essen hundert Mark.
6. Sie besprachen ihre Pläne mit dem Direktor.
7. Sie haben die Freunde nicht für das Buch begeistern können.
8. Er hat seinen Kindern ein Haus bauen lassen.
9. Unsere Koffer haben wir den Nachbarn anvertraut.
10. Ihre Unentschlossenheit wird sie später große Sorge kosten.

3.3322 Predicates with Dative Object

a. Write sentences using the following words:

1. Kinder, Fisch, nicht schmecken.

2. Sohn, Vater, widersprechen.

____

3. Arzt, Patient, Reise nach dem Süden, empfehlen.

____

4. Tochter, Mutter, charakterlich, gleichen.

____

5. Reisender, Beamter, für Auskunft, danken.

____

6. Großmutter, Kinder, Geschichte, erzählen.

____

7. Dieb, Polizei, nicht entkommen.

____

8. Lehrer, Schüler, Mut, zureden.

____

9. Verbrecher, Gefängniswächter, entlaufen.

____

10. Junger Mann, hübsches Mädchen, schmeicheln.

____

b. Complete the following sentences using the cue words in the correct case:

1. (ich) Die neue Adresse von Hans ist __________ bekannt, aber seine Telefonnummer wäre __________ dienlicher.

2. (er) Es ist __________ angenehm, daß es __________ möglich ist, uns zu besuchen.

3. (du) Deine Schwester ist __________ gar nicht ähnlich; sie ist __________ charakterlich ganz fremd.

4. (die Mutter) Das gute Kind war __________ folgsam und __________ mit Freuden behilflich.

5. (der Kranke) Diese Speisen sind __________ nicht bekömmlich, sie sind __________ sicherlich schädlich.

6. (ein Mensch-ein anderer Mensch) Was ______________ angenehm ist, ist ______________ unangenehm; was ______________ gleichgültig und unwichtig ist, erscheint ______________ wichtig und schwerwiegend.

7. (sie) Er war __________ an Intelligenz weit überlegen, aber dennoch war er __________ treu.

8. (wir) Es ist __________ gar nicht lieb, wenn ihr mitkommt.
9. (jedes Kind) Die Erfahrung lehrt __________ Kind, was __________ nützlich oder schädlich, angenehm oder unangenehm ist.
10. (ich) Es ist __________ angenehm, daß diese __________ so dienliche Übung hiermit zuende ist.

3.3321 Reflexive Predicates

a. Are there more or fewer predicates with obligatory reflexive predicates in English than in German? __________

b. Rewrite the following clauses as follows: Ihr Geschenk hat ihn erfreut > Er hat sich über ihr Geschenk gefreut.

1. Die Bemerkungen des Kleinen haben uns sehr amüsiert.

____

2. Seine Unbescheidenheit hat mich geärgert.

____

3. Die Unordnung in seinem Büro hat sie aufgeregt.

____

4. Das Benehmen der Polizei hat die Öffentlichkeit empört.

____

5. Dein liebenswürdiger Brief hat mich sehr erfreut.

____

6. Die Rücksichtslosigkeit der Kinder entrüstet die Eltern.

____

7. Das erfolgreiche Wahlergebnis wundert mich nicht.

____

8. Das gestohlene Brot sättigte ihn.

____

9. Der große Erfolg hat sie begeistert.

____

10. Eine kühle Limonade hat den staubigen Wanderer gelabt.

____

c. Complete the clauses below using both verbs; one is reflexive:

1. gedulden, warten: Können Sie (______) einen Augenblick ========== (__________)?
2. sein, befinden: Das Büro des Direktors ======== ====== (__________) im ersten Stock.
3. wagen, trauen: Ich habe ====== nicht ========= (__________) danach zu fragen.

4. gehen, handeln: Es ========== ======== (__________) um eine private Angelegenheit.

5. überlegen, besinnen: Er hat ==========nicht lange ========== (__________), sondern ist losgerannt.

6. erhöhen, steigen: Die Produktionskosten ========== ======= (__________) dauernd.

7. beschließen, entschließen: Ich habe ========== ========== (__________), mir ein Auto zu kaufen.

8. erstrecken, reichen: Der Wald ========== ======== (__________) bis zum Gebirge.

9. garantieren, verbürgen: __________ du (========== du==========) daß die Arbeit pünktlich fertig wird?

10. aufstehen, erheben: Er ========== ==========(__________ __________), und verließ das Zimmer.

d. Complete the clauses using the appropriate reflexive pronoun in the correct case:

1. Du mußt __________ regelmäßig die Zähne putzen.
2. Ich kann __________ seine Adresse nicht merken.
3. Bilde __________ nicht ein, du könntest in der Lotterie gewinnen!
4. Das muß ich __________ noch einmal überlegen.
5. Sie sollten __________ die Haare schneiden lassen.
6. Augenblicklich kann ich __________ kein Auto leisten.
7. Du hattest __________ vorgenommen, uns zu helfen.
8. Wie kannst du __________ anmaßen, darüber zu urteilen?
9. Wir einigten __________ auf einen Kompromiß.
10. Ich konnte __________ die nötigen Kenntnisse schnell aneignen.

3.3323 Predicates with Dative and Accusative Objects

Write sentences using the following words/phrases:

1. Vater, Tochter, Europareise, erlauben.

____

2. Gast, Ober, Rechnung, bezahlen.

____

3. Sieger, Besiegter, Hand, reichen.

____

4. Arzt, dein Bruder, Rauchen, verbieten.

____

5. Verkäufer, Kunde, neues Modell, bringen.

6. Forscher, Wissenschaft, Gesundheit, opfern.

7. Stolzer Vater, kleines Baby, Gäste, zeigen.

8. Räuber, Bote, Geldtasche, rauben.

9. Königin, Nationalheld, Orden, überreichen.

10. Reiche Tante, armer Neffe, Scheck, schicken.

3.3324 Predicates with Genitive Objects

Rewrite the sentences below and replace the genitive with a different construction:

1. Der Ausländer erinnert sich oft seiner Heimat.

2. Der Minister enthob den Beamten seiner Stellung.

3. Mutter scheint der Ruhe und Erholung sehr bedürftig.

4. Wir waren des Weges unkundig.

5. Der Schüler schämt sich seiner Faulheit.

6. Ein böser Mensch ist jedes Verbrechens fähig.

7. Die Dame würdigt den Bettler keines Blickes.

8. Er ist der Unterschlagung verdächtig und sich der Schuld bewußt.

9. Die Kinder sollten der Liebe und Mühe ihrer Eltern eingedenk sein.

10. Die Schauspieler waren des großen Erfolges sicher.

3.3325 Predicates with Prepositional Object

a. Rewrite the following sentences by replacing the combination of a relatively colorless verb plus a noun with a related, more descriptive verb:

1. Er hat diesen Schritt noch nicht in Erwägung gezogen.

   ____

2. Man kam zu dem Entschluß, ihn wieder zu wählen.

   ____

3. Er kann seine Wünsche schlecht zum Ausdruck bringen.

   ____

4. Wir müssen endlich dieses Problem zur Klärung bringen.

   ____

5. Du solltest jetzt diesen Brief zum Abschluß bringen.

   ____

6. Sie hat uns mit ihrer Haltung in Erstaunen versetzt.

   ____

7. Zum Manöver werden alle Truppen zum Einsatz gebracht.

   ____

8. Dieses neue Gesetz bringt die Freiheit in Gefahr.

   ____

9. Leider müssen wir nun seine Hilfe in Anspruch nehmen.

   ____

10. In der Sitzung wird dieser Punkt zur Sprache kommen.

   ____

b. Supply the appropriate preposition in the sentences below:

1. In der Kneipe roch es __________ Tabak.
2. Sie litt __________ Blutarmut und ist auch dar______ gestorben.
3. Er hat nicht __________ meinen Brief geantwortet.
4. Bitte sagen Sie mir, __________ wie vielen Teilen ein Radio besteht.
5. __________ solchem Erfolg hatte ich nicht gerechnet.
6. Sie hoffte vergeblich __________ Anerkennung ihrer Leistung.
7. Wir freuen uns __________ Ihren Besuch am nächsten Sonntag.
8. Nach den Aufregungen sehnen wir uns nun __________ Ruhe.
9. Er besteht __________ der baldigen Lösung des Problems.
10. Ich verstehe nicht, warum er sich dar______ so aufregt.
11. Man kann es __________ seinen Bemerkungen schließen.
12. Sie hat nichts __________ unserer Diskussion beigetragen.

13. Wir müssen uns ________ diese Vorwürfe wehren.
14. Er hat uns ________ Kauf dieses alten Autos überredet.
15. Man kann nie da ______ rechnen, daß sie pünktlich sind.
16. Herzlichen Dank für das Paket, ________ das ich mich sehr freue.
17. Nur mit Mühe konnte er sich ________ die Idee begeistern.
18. Man hat ihn ________ der Leitung des Geschäfts beauftragt.
19. Wir haben uns ________ das kleinere Haus entschieden.
20. Ich habe dich sofort ________ deiner Stimme erkannt.

c. Translate the following sentences into German:

1. Everybody gripes about high taxes.

____

2. I trust in your integrity and believe in your success.

____

3. Would you please watch my bags for a moment?

____

4. This book deals with finances.

____

5. All his stories are based on true events.

____

6. You do not have to worry about your future.

____

7. She had hardly recovered from her illness when he fell sick.

____

8. He never limits himself to the essentials.

____

9. We talked with them about the value of good music.

____

10. Nobody asked her for advice in this matter.

____

3.333 Clause Constituent Plans

Give the valence of the following verbs and write a sample sentence:

1. sprechen ______________________________

____

2. aussprechen ______________________________

____

3. besprechen ______________________________

____

4. versprechen ______________________________

____

5. erinnern ____________________

____

6. sich erinnern ____________________

____

7. verschwinden ____________________

____

8. warten ____________________

____

9. zuhören ____________________

____

10. gehören ____________________

____

3.4 Modification of the Verb Phrase
3.41 Forms of Modifiers
3.411 Adverbs Modifying Verb Phrases

a. Circle the adverbs in the following sentences and indicate whether they are (1) true adverbs, (2) derived adverbs, (3) compound adverbs or (4) adjectives functioning as adverbs:

1. Gestern hat es nördlich von uns stark geregnet. ______/_____
2. Gehen Sie erst rechts um die Ecke, dann geradeaus, so kommen Sie am besten zum Rathaus. ___/___/___/__
3. Freundlicherweise hat er mir sofort geholfen. ______/_____
4. Diese Nachricht berührte ihn besonders unangenehm. ______/_____
5. Uberall hat man die Straβen dermaβen aufgerissen, daβ der Vekehr jetzt kaum noch flieβt. ___/___/___/__
6. Sie wurden mehrmals dringend gebeten, sich baldmöglichst beim Finanzamt zu melden. ____/____/____
7. Kürzlich wurde ein Junge schwer verletzt, als er blindings quer über die Straβe rannte. ___/___/___/__
8. Dieser Redner sprach unerhört lange; die anderen kamen bestenfalls nur kurz zu Worte. ___/___/___/___/
9. Sie saβen laut diskutierend um den Tisch; man konnte sie drauβen hören. ____/____/___
10. Der Weg führte steil abwärts geradewegs in eine Schlucht. ____/____/___

b. Form the comparative and superlative of the adjectives which function as adverbs, e.g. schnell laufen: Peter, Hans, Fritz: Peter läuft schnell, Hans läuft schneller, und Fritz läuft am schnellsten:

1. hoch: Wohnhaus, Universität, Kirchturm

____

____

2. hübsch: seine Schwester, deine Freundin, meine Kusine:

____

____

3. wenig rauchen: Vater, Bruder, Schwester:

____

____

4. gut singen: junges Mädchen, Studentin, Opernsängerin:

____

____

5. interessant schreiben: Journalist, Professor, Autor:

____

____

3.412 Noun Phrases Modifying Verb Phrases

Rewrite the following sentences, positing the modifier noun phrase at the beginning:

1. Sie hat ihn jeden Abend abgeholt.

   ____

2. Rotkäppchen besuchte eines Tages ihre Groβmutter.

   ____

3. Wir feiern das Weihnachtsfest alle Jahre wieder.

   ____

4. Sie erwachten eines Morgens in einer verschneiten Welt.

   ____

5. Dieser Film war das Eintrittsgeld nicht wert.

   ____

6. Wir sehen uns alle zwei Monate bei einer Konferenz.

   ____

7. Man sollte des Abends weniger fernsehen und mehr lesen.

   ____

8. Die Kiste mit den Büchern des Professors wiegt drei Zentner.

   ____

9. Wir standen fünf Stnden Schlange, bevor wir die Karten bekamen.

   ____

10. Ihr Brief war wirklich sieben Seiten lang.

   ____

3.413 Prepositional Phrases Modifying Verb Phrases

Circle the prepositional phrases which function as modifiers in the sentences below:

1. Um 7 Uhr fährt Hans mit seinem Wagen ins Büro.
2. Man soll nicht mit vollem Mund während des Essens sprechen.
3. Trotz des Regens bin ich ohne Regenschirm aus dem Haus gegangen.
4. Im nächsten Jahr wird er sich mit Eva verloben.
5. Mit seinen Freunden reiste er zum Skifahren in die Schweiz.
6. In unserer Firma wurde der Tresor von Dieben aufgebrochen.
7. Ihr neuer Roman wird im Jahre 1984 auch in Australien veröffentlicht.
8. Weder mit viel Geld noch all seinen Bemühungen konnte er sie zum Verkauf ihrer Villa am Genfer See überreden.
9. Nach dem Diner wurde der Mokka von dem mürrischen Butler den Gästen in der Bibliothek serviert.
10. Er entschloβ sich zur Abreise ohne Rücksicht auf die Folgen.

3.42 Use and Function of Modifiers
3.421 Modifiers of Place

a. Complete the following sentences with prepositions and supply the appropriate ending of the determiner. Indicate at the margin whether the prepositional modifier of place indicates (1) stationary, (2) directional to or (3) directional from. Use the following prepositions:

an, auf, hinter, in, neben, über, unter, vor, zwischen, aus, bei, von, nach, zu, von...bis, von...zu

1. Sie saß beim Essen ________ ihr____ Gastgeber ________
2. Wir haben ein Dach ________ unser____ Tür anbringen lassen. ________
3. Der Artikel stand ________ d____ Zeitung. ________
4. Hast du das Buch ________ d____ Regal genommen? ________
5. Wie komme ich ________ hier ________ d____ Bahnhof? ____/____
6. Lehne dich nicht ________ d____ frischgestrichene Wand! ________
7. Der Hund kroch erschrocken ________ d____ Sofa. ________
8. Im Sturm fielen alle Äpfel ________ unser____ Baum. ________
9. Er versteckte sich ________ d____ Vorhang. ________
10. Ich ging ________ mein____ Arbeit, er kam ____ seiner. ____/____
11. Sie stellte sich schützend ________ d____ Kind. ________
12. Er trank den Cognac ________ d____ Flasche. ________
13. ________ d____ Gästen war auch Herr Schmitt. ________
14. Ein Blumentopf fiel ihm ________ d____ Kopf. ________
15. Meine Geschäftsreisen führen mich oft ________ Paris. ________
16. Sie arbeitet ________ unser____ Einwohnermeldeamt. ________
17. Wir haben die Regel ________ d____ Grammatik gefunden. ________
18. Warum hast du dich ________ d____ beiden Streitenden gesetzt? ________
19. Sie fährt nur ________ München ________ zum Chiemsee mit. ____/____
20. Bitte hänge die Lampe ________ d____ Schreibtisch! ________
21. Er fertigte mich ________ d____ Haustür ab. ________
22. Sie malen eine Karikatur des Lehrers ________ d____ Tafel. ________
23. Wir haben jahrelang ________ einander gewohnt. ________
24. Bitte stellen Sie Ihren Wagen ________ d____ Haus! ________
25. ________ sein____ Büro geht er sofort ________ d____ Freunden. ____/____

b. The words hin 'from' and her 'to,' seen from the view point of the speaker, can be combined with prepositions or stand alone. (her+in = herein). Complete the following clauses:

1. Wo kommst du ________ und wo gehst du ________?
2. Wenn es klopft, sagt man "________".
3. Wir gehen auf die andere Seite der Straße ________.
4. Die Brücke ist kaputt, niemand kann ________ oder ________.
5. Er geht aus dem Haus ________ und steigt in sein Auto ________.
6. Bitte gib mir das Buch vom oberen Regal ________!
7. Er sprang aus dem Fenster ________ und auf die Straße ________.
8. Der Hund sprang über den Zaun ________ und in den Garten ________.
9. Julia warf Romeo eine Rose von Balkon ________.
10. Romeo möchte, daß Julia auch ________ kommt.

3.422 Modifiers of Time

a. Write the preposition zu, um, in or nach in the appropriate spaces:

1. Erst _____ jüngster Zeit hat man das erfunden.
2. Großmutter sagt: "_____ meiner Zeit mußten junge Mädchen _____ 8 Uhr zu Hause sein."
3. _____ seinem Examen will er sich erst erholen.
4. Heute geht es nicht, bitte kommen Sie _____ einer Woche.
5. Schon _____ wenigen Minuten wußten wir, daß die Mannschaft verlieren würde.
6. Bis _____ Beginn der Nachrichten, _____ drei Minuten, gibt es Tanzmusik.
7. Bitte rufen Sie ihn nicht _____ 10 Uhr an, denn er geht immer _____ neun zu Bett.
8. Dienst ist Dienst und Schnaps ist Schnaps, alles _____ seiner Zeit.
9. Er kann _____ zwei Tagen des Krankenhaus verlassen; das ist genau eine Woche _____ der Operation.
10. _____ letzter Zeit hat sich der Arbeitseifer verbessert, alle arbeiten sogar _____ dem Abendessen.

b. Fill in the appropriate preposition auf, aus, für, um or von/vom:

1. Ich habe noch Schulden _____ letzten Jahr.
2. Er hat die Rechnung _____ den 12. Juli datiert.
3. _____ die nächste Woche haben wir einen Ausflug geplant.
4. Wir müssen den Ausflug leider _____ eine Woche verschieben.
5. Das Gesetz stammt noch _____ der Kaiserzeit.
6. Ich danke Ihnen für den Brief _____ 6. Mai dieses Jahres.
7. Er hat sich ihren Besuch _____ nächsten Montag vorgemerkt.

8. Weihnachten fällt dieses Jahr _____ einen Sonntag.
9. Hast du noch die Zeitung _____ gestern?
10. Das Museum hat herrliche Sammlungen _____ der Römerzeit.

c. Fill in an/am, zu/zum, in/im, um or bei:

1. _____ Morgen, schon _____ Sonnenaufgang ist er unterwegs.
2. Wann beginnt die Vorstellung, _____ 8 oder _____ 9 Uhr?
3. _____ einem Donnerstag, _____ Monat Mai, _____ Frühjahr, _____ Jahre 1892 wurde sie geboren.
4. _____ Neujahrstag sind wir müde, denn _____ Silvesterabend feiern wir bis _____ frühen Morgen.
5. _____ Beginn des nächsten Monats fahren wir nach Holland.
6. Sie datierte den Brief: "München, _____ Freitag, dem 11. Mai."
7. _____ unserem Jahrzehnt gab es viele Naturkatastrophen.
8. Wir treffen uns _____ die Mittagsstunde am Marktplatz.
9. Bezahlt ihr eure Rechnung _____ Beginn des Monats oder _____ Monatsende?
10. Hans hat _____ August Geburtstag; _____ dem Tag gibt er immer eine Gartenparty.

3.423 Modifiers of Mood

a. Use the following modifiers in the sentences below; use each only once:

glücklicherweise, mindestens, vergebens, gern, auswendig, absichtlich, teilweise, anders, brieflich, lieblos.

1. Ich habe deinen Brief zerrissen, es war aus Versehen und nicht _________.
2. Wer nützliche Sätze _________ lernt, wird sich schnell in Deutschland verständigen können.
3. Ein Kind fiel ins Wasser; es wurde _________ gerettet.
4. Es kommt in Leben immer _________, als man denkt.
5. Bitte laß mich nicht _________ auf dich warten!
6. Das Kind muß _________ zwei Wochen im Krankenhaus bleiben.
7. Ich habe das wirklich nicht _________ getan.
8. Warum hast du nur den Tisch so _________ gedeckt?
9. Er hat leider den Vortrag nur _________ verstanden.
10. Geschäftliche Verhandlungen sollte man _________ durchführen.

b. From the following modifiers, choose the appropriate one for each of the following sentences:

sehr, recht, kaum, genug, allzu, ungewöhnlich, fast, ziemlich, beinahe, nur.

1. Die Vorlesung war __________ langweilig.
2. Wir hatten dieses Jahr einen __________ kalten Winter.
3. Mit seiner Raserei hätte er __________ eine Katze überfahren.
4. Wenn man __________ viel arbeitet, wird man nervös.
5. Er findet seine Aufgaben __________ schwierig.
6. Wenn du mehr gearbeitet hättest, hättest du nicht __________ Vieren bekommen.
7. Ich wünsche Ihnen einen __________ angenehmen Abend.
8. Sie war so heiser, sie konnte __________ sprechen.
9. Der Lehrer ist wegen der Dummheit der Schüler __________ verzweifelt.
10. Hast du jetzt endlich __________ gegessen?

3.424 Modifiers of Cause

a. To indicate the cause of an action, the motive is expressed with aus, the effect or unwilling action with vor. Fill in the proper prepositions below:

1. _____ Protest gegen die Rigierung demonstrierten die Studenten.
2. Er sieht den Wald _____ lauter Bäumen nicht.
3. Seine Augen funkelten _____ Zorn.
4. _____ Unkenntnis hat er sich schuldig gemacht.
5. Das Publikum tobte _____ Begeisterung.
6. Ich könnte _____ Freude an die Decke springen.
7. Er half nicht _____ Nächstenliebe, sondern _____ reinem Egoismus.
8. _____ lauter Bedenken kam er zu keinem Entschluß.
9. _____ Eitelkeit trägt sie ihre Brille nur selten.
10. Wir waren starr _____ Überraschung.

b. The preposition mit can indicate an instrument or means: Er hat sich mit einer Krawatte erhängt 'He hanged himself with a tie.' It can also express an appearance; the noun in the prepositional phrase has no determiner: Er hat sich mit Krawatte erhängt 'He hanged himself, and he had a tie on.' Complete the following sentences:

1. Er kam ______ ausgestreckt__ Hand auf mich zu.
2. Er kann ______ recht__ Hand besser schreiben.
3. ______ neu__ Brille kann ich besser sehen.
4. ______ Brille sieht er intelligent aus.
5. Sie hatte ihr Gesicht _____ Maske verdeckt.
6. Beginn des Kostümfestes um 8 Uhr. Einlaß nur ______ Maske.

7. Der Dieb machte sich _____ falsch___ Bart unkenntlich.
8. Ich finde, Vater sieht _____ Bart würdiger aus.
9. Er hörte sich _____ schuldbewußt gesenkt___ Kopf die Strafpredigt an.
10. Warum mußt du immer _____ Kopf durch die Wand gehen?

3.425-3.427 Modifiers of Purpose , Contrast, Condition

a. Fill in the prepositions zu, trotz, bei or ohne and the appropriate determiners:

1. _____ ihrer Verteidigung behauptete sie, es _____ Absicht getan zu haben.
2. _____ gut___ Einkommens haben Schmitts nie Geld.
3. Es wäre mir schrecklich, _____ Freunde zu leben.
4. _____ Konferenz wurden keine neuen Entschlüsse gefaßt.
5. Sie brauchen _____ Heilung unbedingte Ruhe.
6. _____ groß___ Mühe kann man keine großen Erfolge erringen.
7. Er hat uns nur _____ eigen___ Vorteil beraten.
8. _____ des Straßenlärms schlafen die Kinder fest _____ offen___ Fenster.
9. _____ Essen kann man nicht leben; _____ zu viel___ Essen wird man dick.
10. Ich muß _____ Arbeit völlig ungestört sein.

b. Translate the following sentences into German and indicate in the margin whether the modifier is of (1) purpose, (2) contrast or (3) condition:

1. He is never helpful, nonetheless, I'll ask you for his help. _____

____

2. They stole his car just for the fun of it. _____

____

3. I cannot carry this box without somebody's help. _____

____

4. In spite of his good intentions, he continued drinking. _____

____

5. One needs imagination (in order) to cook well. _____

____

6. It was her turn to call me, but I called her regardless. _____

____

7. In this heat, it is hard to run fast. ________

____

8. In spite of your good exam, I cannot give you a better grade than a C. ________

____

9. With better business practices, this store could be very successful. ________

____

10. You need more light to read. ________

____

3.428 Modifiers of Comparison

a. Fill in wie or als, as appropriate:

1. Wir arbeiten heute viel rentabler _____ früher.
2. Er war eher leichtsinnig _____ mutig.
3. Jetzt sind wir genauso weit _____ vorher.
4. Dieses Jahr ist unser Verdienst nur halb so hoch _____ im Vorjahr.
5. Heute geht es ihm ein bißchen besser _____ gestern.
6. Ihr Kleid war doppelt so teuer _____ meines, aber sie wirkt so ungepflegt _____ eine Putzfrau.
7. Diese Versuche sind ebenso kostspielig _____ nutzlos.
8. Ich habe den Himmel noch nie so blau _____ heute gesehen.
9. Sie schrie _____ eine Wahnsinnige.
10. Dieses Erdbeben war zehnmal stärker _____ das in San Francisco.

b. Translate the following sentences into German:

1. The road became steeper and steeper.

____

2. The more I listen to this symphony, the more I like it.

____

3. His job is less demanding than hers.

____

4. She is looking forward to Christmas as much as they are.

____

5. He was more discouraged than angry.

____

6. The food prices climb higher and higher.

____

7. This method is substantially more complex than the old one .

____

8. The preparations are no less important than the actual work.

____

9. He arrived at exactly the same time as I.

____

10. She may be ten years older than my mother.

____

3.429 Modifiers of Emphasis

a. Fill the following modifiers in the sentences below:

ja, wirklich, gewiß, allerdings, zweifellos, tatsächlich, auf jeden Fall, unbedingt, natürlich, bestimmt.

1. Es wird immer dunkler, es gibt ________ heut noch Regen.
2. Unsere neuen Mieter sind reizend, du mußt sie ________ kennenlernen.
3. Mein Großvater muß ein interessanter Mann gewesen sein, ich habe ________ keine eigenen Erinnerungen an ihn.
4. Es kann nach 9 Uhr sein, aber ich komme ________.
5. Hat er das ________ behauptet?
6. Der Tote hatte keine Wertsachen an sich; ________ ist er ermordet und beraubt worden.
7. Ach, das tut mir ________ so leid!
8. Er wußte ________, warum ich böse auf ihn war.
9. Kommst du mit zur Post? Ja, ________, ich brauche Briefmarken.
10. Seine Forderungen sind jetzt ________ unverschämt!

b. Translate the following sentences into German, and use the modifiers denn, nur, bloß, eigentlich, überhaupt or ja:

1. Your pants have another tear! Why can't you be more careful?

____

2. Tell me, Mother, how did you and Dad meet?

____

3. Why didn't you tell her the truth?

____

4. I have been waiting for an hour. Where can he be?

____

5. What a shame!

____

6. We can't do anything about that.

____

7. Do not think that they will understand you!

____

8. I can't see your car. Where did you park it?

____

9. Incidentally, how did they find that out?

____

10. What's for dinner tonight?

____

c. Fill in the adverbs noch 'still', schon 'already', nur 'only' or erst 'only' ('less or later than expected'):

1. Das Kind ist so groß. Ist es wirklich _____ 4 Jahre alt?
2. Schiller wurde _____ 45 Jahre alt.
3. Wir wünschen dem Geburstagskind _____ viele frohe Jahre.
4. Wir wohnen _____ seit sechs Jahren hier.
5. Diesen Brief habe ich _____ gestern erhalten, deshalb habe ich ihn _____ nicht beantwortet.
6. Sie hat _____ 2 Wochen Urlaub, zu wenig für eine weite Reise.
7. Hast du dein Taschengeld _____ wieder ausgegeben?
8. Er war _____ 25 Jahre alt, als er Professor wurde.
9. Hast du eine Mark? Ich habe _____ 25 Pfenige.
10. Wir haben _____ viel Zeit. Das Konzert beginnt _____ um 8 Uhr.
11. Wohnen Sie _____ lange hier? Nein, ich bin _____ letzte Woche eingezogen.
12. Er konnte Englisch, Französisch und Spanisch. Aber das genügte ihm _____ nicht, jetzt will er _____ Russisch lernen.
13. Diese Woche habe ich _____ viel zu tun; _____ nächste Woche kann ich mich erholen.
14. Wenn er es mir _____ rechtzeitig geschrieben hätte!
15. Der Zug ist _____ nicht angekommen; er hätte _____ vor zehn Minuten hier sein müssen. Wenn wir _____ unseren Anschluß nicht verpassen! Sonst kommen wir _____ morgen zu Haus an.

3.43 Negation of the Predicate

a. Fill in the following negations in the sentences below:

nein, nie, niemals, gar nicht, wirklich nicht, keineswegs, auf keinen Fall, im Gegenteil, nie mehr, überhaupt nicht:

1. Hast du heute die Blumen gegossen? ________, ich habe sie noch ________ gegossen.
2. Du hast ihn zu sehr beleidigt; er wird ________ wieder zu uns kommen.
3. Sie ist ________ so dumm, wie sie vorgibt.
4. Dieses Mal kannst du ________ zu spät kommen!
5. Bitte glaube mir, ich habe ________ gelogen!

6. Findest du Herrn Meier sympathisch? _____, ich kann ihn ________ leiden.
7. Früher waren wir gute Freunde, aber seit seiner Heirat habe ich ________ von ihm gehört.
8. Schneit es? ________, die Sonne scheint.
9. Ich habe sie ________ danach fragen können, und jetzt ist es zu spät.
10. Er ruft täglich an, aber heute hat er sich ________ gemeldet.

b. Negate the following sentences:

1. Er kann es sich leisten, öfter ins Theater zu gehen.

___

2. Es ist klar, daß wir bei ihnen arbeiten sollen.

___

3. Du mußt heute das Paket von der Post holen.

___

4. Man darf bei rotem Licht über die Straße gehen.

___

5. Er spricht und bewegt seine Hände. Er ist gesund.

___

6. Sie sollen mit uns während der Ferien nach Europa fahren.

___

7. Würdest du ihm das bitte erzählen?

___

8. Er muß sich wirklich sehr anstrengen.

___

9. Ich hatte ihn gebeten, mich anzurufen.

___

10. Das war wirklich für uns überraschend.

___

CHAPTER FOUR

4. NOUN PHRASE
4.11 Forms in the Noun Phrase

a. The definition of a noun as "name of a person, place or thing" still haunts school grammars and some textbooks. Prove to yourself and to your students that a noun is defined by its form, its function, its marker and its position by identifying all noun phrases in Lewis Carroll's Jabberwocky:

'Twas brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe:
All mimsy were the borogroves,
And the mome raths outgabe.

Noun Phrases ______________________

____

____

____

b. Identify the noun phrases in the following sentences by circling them:

1. Zum Weihnachtsfest hat er all seine Verwandten eingeladen.
2. Er hat ihr einen eleganten Lederkoffer geschenkt.
3. Vor zwei Tagen haben wir besonders lange auf den Postboten warten müssen.
4. Das ist der von allen Kritikern einstimmig gelobte Film.
5. Bei unserem gestrigen Waldspaziergang haben wir frische Erdbeeren gepflückt.
6. Ich habe absolut keine Lust, mit seinen sehr seltsamen Freunden in Frankreich Kontakt aufzunehmen.
7. Durch einen Skandal wurde der erst im letzten Jahr zum Direktor ernannte Fritz Müller seines hochbezahlten Amtes enthoben.
8. Jeder hatte ihm Blumen mitgebracht.
9. Wo hast du diese besonders aparte Bluse gekauft?
10. Das war eine sehr üble Geschichte.

4.12 Nouns

a. Of the thirteen parts of speech that can be nouns in German, English has no exact equivalent for all of them. Translate the following sentences into German and indicate whether English differs:

1. To be or not to be, that is here the question. __________

____

2. His drinking is destroying his health. __________

____

3. Rich and poor rejoiced. ________

____

4. The injured persons were brought to the hospital. ________

____

5. Give me the broken one! ________

____

6. Not this one, but that one is his house. ________

____

7. Look at the kids! That blond one laughing is my niece. ________

____

8. He explained the hows and whys to us. ________

____

9. To go is better than to stay. ________

____

10. He has learned that through his readings. ________

____

b. Circle the subject of the following sentences and indicate what part of speech the noun is:

1. Das Auf und Ab des Lebens ist oft ermüdend. ________
2. Dem Postboten hat Peter das Geld gegeben. ________
3. Sein dauerndes Singen fällt uns auf die Nerven. ________
4. Das Heitere ist das Thema seiner Bücher. ________
5. Was ist das? ________
6. Das A und O des Erfolges ist gute Planung. ________
7. Sein Bekannter kommt erst morgen. ________
8. Die Drei ist eine magische Zahl. ________
9. Kriegsversehrte bekommen eine Pension vom Staat. ________
10. Jung und Alt waren dabei ________

4.121 Nominal Inflection

a. Older textbooks of elementary English in Germany show English nouns in the following manner:

Nominative	'the man'
Genitive	'the man's' or 'of the man'
Dative	'to the man'
Accusative	'the man'
Instrumental	'with the man'
Ablative	'by the man'
Locative	'at the man's'
Vocative	'o, man!'

Criticize this approach:

____

____

b. In what manner does English compensate for the lack of nominal inflection?

____

c. Summarize the remnants of gender in English.

____

____

4.122 - 4.123 Gender - Number

a. Give the gender and the plural of the following nouns:

1. _____ Magen _____
2. _____ Marmelade _____
3. _____ Frühling _____
4. _____ Grammatik _____
5. _____ Kissen _____
6. _____ Gemüse _____
7. _____ Symphonie _____
8. _____ Herzogtum _____
9. _____ Narretei _____
10. _____ Assessor _____
11. _____ Pergament _____
12. _____ Blamage _____
13. _____ Seife _____
14. _____ Ziel _____
15. _____ Feigling _____
16. _____ Agent _____
17. _____ Mehrheit _____
18. _____ Null _____
19. _____ Tyrann _____
20. _____ Linde _____
21. _____ Melodie _____
22. _____ Sekretär _____
23. _____ Riesin _____
24. _____ Oper _____
25. _____ Blei _____
26. _____ Kater _____
27. _____ Universität _____
28. _____ Krematorium _____
29. _____ Grenadier _____
30. _____ Schwefel _____
31. _____ Palast _____
32. _____ Aktion _____
33. _____ Kuh _____
34. _____ Norden _____
35. _____ Brötchen _____
36. _____ Weib _____
37. _____ Aspirin _____
38. _____ Bandit _____
39. _____ Rubin _____
40. _____ Lokomotive _____

b. The chart in 4.123 of the COMPANION is reorganized below according to gender. Complete the chart:

GENDER	PLURAL MORPHEME	NUMBER	CLUE	EXAMPLES
der	/-n/	______ ______ ______ ______	______ ______ ______ ______	______________________ ______________________ ______________________
	/-(¨)ə/	______ ______	______ ______	______________________ ______________________
	/-¨ər/	______	______	______________________
	/-(¨)/	______	______	______________________
	/-s/	______	______	______________________
das	/-n/	______	______	______________________
	/-(¨)ə/	______ ______	______ ______	______________________ ______________________
	/-¨ər/	______	______	______________________
	/-(¨)/	______	______	______________________
	/-s/	______	______	______________________
die	/-n/	______	______	______________________
	/-(¨)ə/	______	______	______________________
	/-(¨)/	______	______	______________________
	/-s/	______	______	______________________

c. Each noun in the following pairs has a different gender, indicate it:

1.	____ Insel / ____ Pinsel	21.	____ Kuß/ ____ Nuß
2.	____ Meute / ____ heute	22.	____ Rille/ ____ Wille
3.	____ Weser / ____ Verweser	23.	____ Kandidat/ ____ Konsulat
4.	____ Bart / ____ Fahrt	24.	____ Reichtum/ ____ Altertum
5.	____ Stahl / ____ Wahl	25.	____ Wabe / ____ Rabe
6.	____ Leder / ____ Feder	26.	____ Los/ ____ Schoß
7.	____ Nagel / ____ Nadel	27.	____ Orden/ ____ Ordnen
8.	____ Ei / ____ Brei	28.	____ Regen/ ____ Regel
9.	____ Herd / ____ Pferd	29.	____ Oper/ ____ Ober
10.	____ Nummer / ____ Hummer	30.	____ Biß/ ____ Gebiß
11.	____ Rahmen / ____ Examen	31.	____ Staat/ ____ Stadt
12.	____ Loch / ____ Koch	32.	____ Tür/ ____ Tier
13.	____ Rhein / ____ Schwein	33.	____ Rat/ ____ Saat
14.	____ Funke / ____ Spelunke	34.	____ Hut/ ____ Gut
15.	____ Siegel / ____ Riegel	35.	____ Messer/ ____ Esser
16.	____ Schliff / ____ Schiff	36.	____ Bahn/ ____ Kahn
17.	____ Kuh / ____ Schuh	37.	____ Roß/ ____ Boß
18.	____ Bildnis / ____ Wildnis	38.	____ Arznei/ ____ Allerlei
19.	____ Berater / ____ Theater	39.	____ Bruder/ ____ Ruder
20.	____ Schlüssel / ____ Schüssel	40.	____ Stand/ ____ Band

4.1231 Phonological Conditioning of Plural Morphemes

a. Provide the plural of the following nouns and write out the whole word, observing the phonological conditioning, it applicable:

1. r Rasen	__________	16. r Ofen	__________
2. r Graben	__________	17. e Einkunft	__________
3. s Bündnis	__________	18. s Paar	__________
4. r Mord	__________	19. e Kraft	__________
5. r Hof	__________	20. s Jahr	__________
6. r Schuß	__________	21. r Junge	__________
7. r Apfel	__________	22. r Sohn	__________
8. e Gans	__________	23. r Fuß	__________
9. r Kopf	__________	24. r Fluß	__________
10. s Mahl	__________	25. e Braut	__________
11. r Saal	__________	26. r Muskel	__________
12. e Wand	__________	27. r Bogen	__________
13. e Türkin	__________	28. e Haut	__________
14. e Nacht	__________	29. r Laut	__________
15. r Docht	__________	30. r Vogel	__________

b. Provide the singular and give the gender of the following nouns:

1. Mängel	___	________	16. Hunde	___	________
2. Namen	___	________	17. Sünden	___	________
3. Dramen	___	________	18. Pfunde	___	________
4. Backen	___	________	19. Künste	___	________
5. Rosse	___	________	20. Löwen	___	________
6. Türen	___	________	21. Dörfer	___	________
7. Türme	___	________	22. Äxte	___	________
8. Stühle	___	________	23. Arme	___	________
9. Schnuren	___	________	24. Töchter	___	________
10. Lüfte	___	________	25. Föhren	___	________
11. Schlucke	___	________	26. Führer	___	________
12. Maße	___	________	27. Fähren	___	________
13. Massen	___	________	28. Genüsse	___	________
14. Hindinnen	___	________	29. Genossen	___	________
15. Hämmer	___	________	30. Völker	___	________

4.124 Case

a. In English, the nominative is often called 'subject case,' the accusative 'direct object case,' the dative 'indirect object case' and the genitive 'possessive.' Are these terms useful and applicable to German?

____

b. Complete the determiners and nouns using the appropriate cases:

1. D__ Verkäufer bedient d__ Kund___, ein___ fremd___ Herr___.
2. Für inner___ Friede___ braucht man d___ Glaube___ an Gott und d___ Wille___ zum Leben.
3. Die Autos mein___ Vetter___ und mein___ Neffe___ sind kaputt.
4. Ich habe sein___ Name___ und sein___ Adresse nicht verstanden.
5. Mit zwei Franzose___ und drei Griechin___ macht er eine Reise.
6. Durch ein___ Funke___ begann das Haus unser___ Nachbar___ zu brennen.
7. Er hat zwei Kinder, ein___ Junge___ und ein___ Mädchen.
8. Im Zoo kann man Löwe___, Schlange___, Affe___, Bär___, Giraffe___, Hund___, Pferd___ sehen.
9. Im Grunde sein___ Herz___ fürchtet er dies___ Gedanke___.
10. Wir unterhalten uns gern mit all___ Leute___, klein___ Kinder___, Ausländer___, Dame___ und Herr___.

4.13 Determiners

4.131 der-Determiners

a. Each form of the der-determiner occurs at least twice. Place a

'+' in the box in which that form of the determiner occurs:

	SINGULAR												PLURAL			
	der-NOUNS				das-NOUNS				die-NOUNS							
	N	A	D	G	N	A	D	G	N	A	D	G	N	A	D	G
der																
den																
dem																
des																
das																
die																

b. Complete the following sentences with the correct form of the determiners:

1. Er hat solch___ Gespräche und dies___ Diskussionen nicht gern.
2. Mit welch___ Zug sollen wir in d___ schöne Schweiz fahren?
3. Jed___ Student und jed___ Studentin trägt Jeans.
4. Bei jen___ Herrn und dies___ Dame haben wir uns entschuldigt.
5. Die Freunde d___ Vaters sind jen___ Ausländer.
6. Welch___ von dies___ Büchern hast du gelesen?
7. Jed___ Jungen und jed___ Mädchen hat d___ Onkel Geld gegeben.
8. Manch___ Regel und solch___ Gesetze kann ich nicht verstehen.
9. Die Kleidung dies___ Amerikanerin und jen___ Spaniers ist elegant.
10. Welch___ Beamten hast du nach jen___ Formularen und d___ Bestimmungen gefragt?

4.132 ein-Determiners

a. Replace the der-determiner with ein-:

1. Der Fremde fragt den Polizisten nach dem Weg.

____

2. Das Auto des Geschäftsmannes steht vor der Fabrik.

____

3. Dieses Kleid gefällt dem jungen Mädchen.

____

4. Jeder Brief von dem Vetter bringt die gute Nachricht.

____

5. Mancher Student findet diese Vorlesung interessant.

____

b. Fill in the appropriate possessive determiner:

1. Bevor du den Wagen nimmst, mußt du ______ Vater um Erlaubnis bitten.
2. Herr Peters, wo ist ______ Buch? Ich habe ______ Buch vergessen; darf ich ______ Buch borgen?
3. Hans hat ______ Eltern lange nicht geschrieben.
4. Das kleine Mädchen spielt mit ______ Puppen.
5. Wir müssen ______ Haus anstreichen lassen.
6. Die neuen Studenten haben uns von ______ Heimat erzählt.
7. Hans und Inge, wann bekommt ihr ______ neues Auto?
8. Ich habe ______ Bruder eben angerufen.
9. Bitte zieh ______ warmen Mantel an!
10. Bringt ______ Bücher und Hefte mit!

4.14 Adjectives

a. Elicit the underlined adjectives by the questions welch- + noun or was für ein- + noun (plural was für + pl noun) in the appropriate case:

1. Er liest gern spannende Bücher. ______________________
2. Der berühmte Architekt ist kürzlich gestorben.

____

3. Das Radio bringt die neuesten Nachrichten.

____

4. Sie wohnen in einem alten Gebäude.

____

5. Seine Briefmarkensammlung hat einen hohen Wert.

____

6. Der Verlag veröffentlicht die Bücher des bekannten Autors.

____

7. Sie trägt diesen grünen Hut nicht gern.

____

8. Heute treffe ich mich mit meinem alten Freund.

____

9. Sie besitzen sehr kostbare, antike Möbel.

____

10. Leider hat er keinen warmen Mantel finden können.

____

b. Identify the adjectives by circling them and by indicating at the margin if they are (1) true adjectives, (2) past participles, (3) present participles, (4) foreign and uninflected adjectives, (5) comparative or (6) superlative:

1. Wir verkaufen nur prima Ware. ______
2. Sie ist wirklich ein entzückendes Kind. ______
3. Seine ununterbrochene Meckerei stört uns alle. ______
4. Er mußte dafür größere Schulden machen. ___/___
5. Ich habe keine rote Nähseide mehr. ______
6. Das war der beste Wagen, den ich je hatte. ___/___
7. Sie war die berühmteste Opernsängerin ihrer Zeit. ___/___
8. Nein, dieses mauve Kleid gefällt mir nicht. ______
9. Er saß an seinem eleganten Schreibtisch. ______
10. Sie hätten wirklich stärkere Maßnahmen ergreifen sollen. ___/___

4.141 Determining Adjective inflection

a. Complete the adjectives with the appropriate determining endings:

1. Heute gibt es gebraten___ Rehkeule mit frisch___ Salat.
2. Zum Nachtisch gibt es italienisch___ Eis, frisch___ Waffelgebäck und gemischt___ Früchte.
3. Heiß___ Milch mit aufgelöst___ Honig ist gut gegen Husten und Heiserkeit.
4. Trotz größt___ Vorsicht gibt es immer wieder schlimm___ Unfälle.
5. Für langjährig___, treu___ Mitarbeit bekam er ein kostbar___ Geschenk.
6. Sie schreibt mit rot___ Tinte auf gelb___ Papier in grün___ Bücher.
7. Statt deutsch___ Weines hat er französisch___ Cognac gekauft.
8. Trotz gering___ Nachfrage bleiben die Preise für einheimisch___ Kohle und importiert___ Stahl stabil.
9. Er möchte mit Peters neu___ Fahrrad fahren.
10. Nur besonders lieb___ Gäste werden mit solch groß___ Aufwand erwartet.
11. Wegen wachsend___ Unruhe der Bevölkerung gab die Regierung beschwichtigend___ Erklärungen.
12. Der Unfall wurde von menschlich___ oder technisch___ Versagen verursacht.
13. Er gilt als vielversprechend___ Anfänger mit groß___ Talent.
14. Sie ist mit Professor Meiers ältest___ Sohn verheiratet.
15. Er kaufte zwei Pfund frisch___ Butter, drei fett___ Gänse, drei groß___ Köpfe frisch___ Rotkohls und dunkl___ Brot.

16. Bei solch schlecht Wetter wird es drei kalt ___, nass ___ Tage mit stark ___ Wind geben.
17. Aus rot ___ Wolle, gelb ___ Seide und grün ___ Stoff näht manch geschickt ___ Schneiderin elegant ___ Faschingskostüme.
18. Kein gesund ___ Mensch kann ohne frisch ___ Luft, regelmäßig Bewegung, gelegentlich ___ beruflich ___ Erfolg mit echt ___ Zufriedenheit leben.
19. Euer groß ___ Garten inmitten schön ___ Straßen erfreut vorübergehend ___ Spaziergänger.
20. Lieb ___ Onkel! Mit größt ___ Vergnügen nehmen wir Deine Einladung an.

b. Transform the predicate adjectives into specifying adjectives in the noun phrase and add the appropriate ending:

1. Der Verdacht war naheliegend. Das war ein ___ Verdacht.
2. Der Erfolg war überwältigend. Die Zeitung beschreib die Premiere als ___ Erfolg.
3. Das Resultat war zufriedenstellend. Mit derart ___ Resultat hatten wir nicht gerechnet.
4. Die Hotels sind preiswert, die Geschäfte interessant. Am Marktplatz gibt es ___ Hotels und ___ Geschäfte.
5. Niederschläge sind häufig; der Schneefall ist stark. Der Wetterbericht meldete ___ Niederschläge und ___ Schneefall.

c. Rewrite the following sentences according to the example below:

Das ist das neue Auto von Peter. > Das ist Peters neues Auto.

1. Das dauernde Schimpfen von Vater ist nicht auszuhalten.

___

2. Sie trägt immer die abgelegten Kleider von Eva.

___

3. Der Brief ist von der besten Freundin von Mutter.

___

4. Eben sind die reizenden Gäste von Müllers abgereist.

___

5. Darf ich auch mal mit dem neuen Auto von Tante Ilse fahren?

___

6. Das neueste Buch von Professor Hansen war eine Sensation.

___

7. Wo ist der alte Regenmantel von Onkel Otto?

___

8. Der jüngste Sohn von Herrn Schulz studiert Soziologie.

___

9. Gehst du mit dem netten Bruder von Petra ins Theater?

____

10. Wann dürfen wir das geheimnisvolle Geschenkpaket von Großvater öffen? ____

4.142 Reduced Adjective Inflection

a. The inflectional morphemes of the determining and reduced adjective inflections /r, n, m, s, ə/ recur in various genders, cases and numbers. By placing a '+' in the appropriate box, indicate when the morpheme occurs in the determining inflection (D) and in the reduced (R) inflection:

	SINGULAR																								PLURAL							
	der-NOUNS								das-NOUNS								die-NOUNS															
	NOM		ACC		DAT		GEN		NOM		ACC		DAT		GEN		NOM		ACC		DAT		GEN		NOM		ACC		DAT		GEN	
	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R	D	R
/r/																																
/n/																																
/m/																																
/s/																																
/ə/																																

b. Complete the adjectives with either the determining or the reduced inflection:

1. Ruhig___ Zimmer in zentral___ Lage von amerikanisch___ Studentin gesucht.
2. Auf der letzt___ Bank saßen ausländisch___ Studenten aus verschieden___ Ländern mit ihren deutsch___ Freunden.
3. Bei einem schwer___ Verkehrsunfall in der Köln___ Innenstadt sind drei jung___ Arbeiter verletzt worden.
4. Wegen zu hoh___ Geschwindigkeit ist ein schwerbeladen___ Lastwagen mit einem klein___ Personenwagen zusammengestoßen.
5. In der gestrig___ Zeitung stand folgend___ Anzeige: "Jung___ Beamter sucht groß___, möbliert___ Zimmer mit eigen___ Eingang, separat___ Bad."
6. Interessant___, ausländisch___ Filme werden immer in dem klein___ Kino an der nächst___ Ecke gespielt.
7. Warum habt ihr euer neu___ Auto nicht bei einem bekannt___ Händler gekauft?
8. Herr Schmitt hat ein schön___, neu___ Haus, das viel___ groß___ Fenster und eine breit___ Eingangstür aus dunkl___ Holz hat.

9. Während der nächst___ Woche will meine gut___ Tante Minna ihre lieb___ Verwandten in der schön___ Schweiz besuchen.
10. In unserem neu___ Warenhaus gibt es eine groß___ Fülle schön___ und nützlich___ Dinge.

4.143 Inflectional Fluctuations

Supply the endings for the words in the following sentences:

1. Mit ein___ solch unfreundlich___ Mann will ich nicht sprechen.
2. Manch___ alt___ Leute haben viel___ groß___ Sorgen.
3. Mehrer rot___ Kerzen brannten an unser___ hübsch___ Weihnachtsbaum, der mit d___ viel___ bunt___ Kugeln geschmückt war.
4. Du solltest dein___ wenig___ gut___ Bücher mit ein bißchen größer___ Vorsicht behandeln.
5. Er hat all___ sein___ gut___ Freunde und einig___ ausländisch___ Gäste eingeladen.
6. Sie ging mit ihr___ beid___ klein___ Geschwistern und mit zwei ander___ nett___ Kindern in den Zoo, wo sie viel___ interessant___ Tiere und manch ein___ spannend___ Vorführung sahen.
7. Bitte gib mir etwas Kalt___ zu trinken, ich habe ein___ solch___ groß___ Durst, daß ich einig___ groß___ Fässer mit frisch___ Limonade austrinken könnte!
8. D___ viel___ bunt___ Blumen in unser___ schön___ Garten brauchen mehr liebevoll___ Pflege, als ich ihnen bei mein___ viel___ Arbeit geben kann.
9. Ein___ jed___ neu___ Studenten hat der Direktor viel___ so gut___ Worte d___ herzlich___ Willkommens gesagt, daß jed___ einzeln___ sich auf manch___ interessant___ Stunde mit ihm freut.
10. Ich wünsche Ihnen all___ Gut___ zu Ihr___ bevorstehend___ Geburtstag und die Erfüllung all Ihr___ geheimst___ Wünsche.

4.144 Comparison of Adjectives

a. Form the comparative of the following adjectives and complete the sentences:

1. gesund/viel: Leben Sie ______, essen Sie ______ Obst!
2. warm/krank: Wenn du dich nicht ______, anziehst, wirst du noch ______.
3. kurz/gerade: Fahren Sie nach links, dann finden Sie den ______ und ______ Weg.
4. arm/hart/reich: ______ werden von der Inflation ______ betroffen als ______.
5. dumm/kindisch: Sie benimmt sich ______ und ______ als ihre Tochter.
6. schlank/jung: Seitdem ich ______ geworden bin, fühle ich mich ______.
7. dunkel/blond: Sie hat ______ Haar als ich, aber seines ist

noch ________ als meines.

8. übel/teuer: Das hätte noch weit ________ ausgehen und uns noch ________ zu stehen kommen können.
9. hart/straff: Er muß ________ zugreifen und die Arbeit ________ organisieren.
10. geschickt/energisch: Wir suchen einen ________ und ________ Geschäftsführer als zuvor.

b. Translate the following sentences into German:

1. Today I feel a bit better than yesterday.

____

2. Preparations are less important than the actual work.

____

3. These attempts are as expensive as they are useless.

____

4. The new process if far more efficient than the old one.

____

5. He was more amused than shocked.

____

6. Their profit this year was half as much as last year.

____

7. Our business is considerably more well-known than theirs.

____

8. Is he willing to take the greater risk?

____

9. The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence.

____

10. I couldn't imagine a more beautiful surprise.

____

c. Form the absolute superlative of the adjectives below:

1. überzeugend: Seine Argumente waren die ________.
2. falsch: Das war die ________ Entscheidung.
3. gewissenlos: Er ist der ________ Lügner, den ich kenne.
4. gefürchtet: Krebs ist die ________ Krankheit.
5. schwarz; Das war für mich der ________ Tag meines Lebens.
6. genau: Das Dokument wurde der ________ Prüfung unterzogen.
7. früh/schlimm: Für den Kranken sind die ________ Morgenstunden die ________.

8. interessant: Dieses ist sein __________ Vorhaben.
9. gewissenhaft: Nur die __________ Überprüfung kann Fehler vermeiden.
10. berühmt/gepriesen: Er war der __________ und __________ Dichter seiner Zeit.

4.1441 Phonological Conditioning of Adjective Morphemes

Form the comparative or superlative of the given adjectives and fill them into the appropriate spaces:

1. dumpf/flach: Diese Trommel klingt __________ und __________ als jene.
2. komisch/amüsant: Das ist die __________ und __________ Geschichte, die ich je gehört habe.
3. kurz/klar: Du muβt deine Gedanken __________ und __________ formulieren.
4. schlau/zäh: Er hält das für die __________ Lösung, an der er aufs __________ festhält.
5. lebhaft/interessiert: Peter ist __________ und __________ als seine Geschwister.
6. bedeutend/wichtig: Das war die __________ und politisch __________ Konferenz des Jahres.
7. rasch/schnell: Sie hatte immer __________ Antworten als die anderen; aber diesmal antwortete Fritz am __________.
8. kalt/glatt/gefährlich: Heut ist der __________ Tag des Jahres, die Straβen werden immer __________ und __________.
9. hoch/groβ/stolz: Die Wartburg ist die __________, __________ und __________ Burg Thüringens.
10. passend/zutreffend: Gib mir meine __________ Erklärung, die etwas __________ klingt!

4.145 Nominalized Adjectives

a. Complete the nominalized adjectives with the appropriate endings:

1. Der Klüger___ gibt nach, der Bescheiden___ schweigt.
2. Im Gegensatz zu den Angestellt___ dürften Beamt___ nicht streiken.
3. Er übersetzte die Novelle aus dem Portugiesisch___ ins Französisch___.
4. Die ersten Pennsylvania Deutsch___ waren Deutsch___ aus dem Rheinland.
5. Die Versicherung hilft Alt___, Krank___ und Arbeitslos___.
6. Bei dem Brandstifter handelt es sich um einen Geistesgestört___, der sich wie ein Wahnsinnig___ benimmt.
7. Was gibt es Neu___? Ich möchte mal was Erfreulich___ hören.

8. Seine liebsten Angehörig___ leben in Hamburg, aber mit seinen Verwandt___ in Köln verträgt er sich nicht.
9. Er rechnet immer mit dem Schlimmst___ und Häßlichst___.
10. Man soll Gleich___ nicht mit Gleich___ vergelten.
11. Er hat ihr das Blau___ vom Himmel versprochen.
12. Er soll sich auf das Wesentlich___ beschränken und sich nur mit dem Wichtigst___ befassen.
13. Ich muß dir etwas Lustig___ erzählen, denn gestern ist mir etwas ganz Komisch___ passiert.
14. Der Angeklagt___ benahm sich wie ein Unschuldig___.
15. Wenn man vom Traurig___ absieht, hat die Sache sicher auch ihr Gut___.
16. Die Vorsitzend___ glauben nicht, daß Fremd___ der Firma etwas Vernünftig___ vorschlagen können.
17. Unser Jüngst___ eignet sich mehr fürs Praktisch___ als fürs Theoretisch___.
18. Er fühlt sich zu was Besser___ berufen, da er glaubt, seine Kenntnis des Griechisch___ mache ihn zum Heilig___.
19. Die Jungen kümmern sich nicht um das Vergangen___, sie leben im Gegenwärtig___ und arbeiten fürs Zukünftig___.
20. Die ewig Unzufrieden___ sehen nicht das Schön___ im Leben.

b. Translate the sentences below:

1. I have nothing better to do than worry about the light and the dark of life.

____

____

2. "The Naked and the Dead" is a famous novel.

____

3. I am sure you have experienced something similar.

____

4. The drunken man ran into a group of travelers.

____

5. I have nothing positive to say about him.

____

6. Do you have something useful and sensible to do?

____

7. I'll introduce you to these acquaintances.

____

8. One should support the gifted and the talented.

____

9. He said a lot of interesting things, but also some nonsense.

10. These Germans have mastered English and French well.

4.146 Extension of Adjectives

a. Translate the following sentences into idiomatic English and note those structures which differ from German.

1. Sie hat ein altes, schon ein wenig verrostetes Auto.

2. Wir liefen durch den mit festlichen Gästen bevölkerten Saal.

3. Er ist der Sohn eines um 1890 immigrierten norwegischen Geschäftsmannes.

4. Kennen Sie den mir von Herrn Meier zur Verfügung gestellten Apparat?

5. Das junge, etwas verlegen lächelnde Mädchen war seine Tochter.

6. Der auf den breiten Straβen der Groβstadt tobende Verkehr ängstigte sie.

7. Heute hat man die während des Krieges zerstörten Städte wieder aufgebaut.

8. Ihr Vater ist ein auch in Amerika bekannter Ingenieur.

9. Der soeben aus Frankfurt angekommene Zug fährt sofort weiter.

10. Ich kann die lärmenden und sich dauernd streitenden Kinder nicht mehr ertragen.

b. Transform the second clause into an extended adjective construction in the first clause:

1. Der Dieb soll gestern in München gesehen worden sein.
   Die Polizei sucht ihn schon seit Wochen.

2. Der Preis war viel zu hoch. Man hat den Preis für das berühmte Gemälde bezahlt.

___

___

3. Sie trauert um ihren Vater. Er ist letztes Jahr nach langem Leiden verstorben.

___

___

4. Der Weihnachtsbaum ist schön, wenn er von singenden Kindern mit leuchtenden Augen umstanden wird.

___

___

5. Er hat seine Schwester lange nicht mehr gesehen; sie arbeitet als Ärztin an einem großen Berliner Krankenhaus.

___

___

6. Er ärgert sich über das Experiment, das heute trotz seiner größten Mühe und Sorfalt mißlang.

___

___

7. Bitte störe die Kinder nicht, die im Nebenzimmer friedlich schlafen!

___

___

8. Er hatte einen langen, schneeweißen Bart, der seine Krawatte ganz bedeckte.

___

9. Er zeigte mir seine Korrespondenz, die er wegen seiner vermißten Verwandten an das Deutsche Rote Kreuz richtete.

___

___

10. Ich hoffe, Sie haben viel durch diese Ubung gelernt, die nun endlich beendet ist.

___

___

4.147 Numbers
4.1471 Cardinal Numbers

Translate the following sentences into German; write out the numbers:

1. Goethe was born in 1749.

___

2. My phone number is 54 96 22.

3. The federal deficit is DM 95.220.375.601,--

4. How much is that? That is DM 194,27.

5. My lucky number is 11.

6. Show me your report card! Why did you only get a D in English? You could have studied harder to get at least a B!

7. She may be over forty, but he must be beyond his sixties.

8. In the twenties he studied in London, and in the forties he lived in New York.

9. He had not even a dime in his pockets, but he behaved as if he had thousands.

10. Could you give me a hundred marks in ones, fives, tens, and one twenty?

4.1472 Ordinal Numbers

Translate into German; write out the numbers:

1. Today is Tuesday, November 14, 1982.

2. When were you born? On April 9, 1954.

3. Charles I is also known as Charlemagne.

4. His mother is her father's second daughter from his third marriage.

5. Bus number five comes every twenty minutes during the day. Last night I just caught the last one.

____

____

6. He always wants to be the first and is never content with second best.

____

____

7. I cannot go along. Firstly, I still have not done my homework, secondly, I am supposed to call Hans, and thirdly, I really do not care for that movie.

____

____

8. She lives in the sixth house on twenty-ninth street.

____

9. He told us the story last night for the hundredth time.

____

10. Inge is in the fifth grade, Helmut in the eighth, and Wolfgang is in his third year at the university.

____

____

4.1473 Other Numerical Expressions

Translate the following into German:

1. He is approaching his nineteenth birthday, but his little brother is only two and a half.

____

____

2. Take two eggs, 3/4 liters milk, 1 1/2 pounds sugar, 3 1/4 pounds flour and 1/8 pound butter.

____

____

3. It's halftime; hopefully, the second half will be better.

____

4. The train arrives at 9:23 p.m. and leaves again at 10:17.

____

5. How much is 17 x 29? Figure it out yourself! It's ____________.

____

6. It is time to go to sleep; it's 10 past midnight; that leaves us only 6 hours if we want to get up at a quarter past 6.

____

____

7. The show begins at 8:15, intermission is from 9:45 to 10:05 and the performance ends at 11:20.

____

____

8. I asked you four times to send it. Please get it here once and for all.

____

____

9. He gave me one third of his sandwich and half of his apple.

____

10. His novel is 3/5 finished, but he will revise it fifteen times.

____

4.15 Prepositions

a. Which of the following words functions as a postposition in English: 'about, across, ago, among'? ____________________

b. In the following sentences, identify the function of the prepositions by circling them and by indicating if they are (1) a separable prefix, (2) introducing an obligatory prepositional object, (3) introducing a prepositional phrase as modifier, (4) a postposition, (5) a prepositional pronoun:

1. Am Abend sitzen wir gern beim Feuer. ____/____
2. Sie stellt sich das so einfach vor. __________
3. Wir sprachen mit ihm über die Reisepläne. ____/____
4. Warum bist du denn dagegen? __________
5. Alles geschah seinen Erwartungen gemäß. __________
6. Sie fahren den Sommer über aufs Land. ____/____
7. Während der letzten Jahre wohnten sie in Paris. ____/____
8. Auf einmal platzten wir vor Lachen über den Witz. ___/___/___
9. Deswegen übersetzte er das Buch ins Deutsche. ____/____
10. Anscheinend schneidet er das Thema nicht gern mit uns und vor ihnen an. ___/___/___

c. Evaluate the usefulness of the following mnemonic rhymes that summarize the prepositions:

1. Aus, bei mit, nach, von, zu, seit,
   außer und auch gegenüber
   haben Dativ allezeit.

2. Durch, für, ohne, um und gegen
   den Akkusativ belegen.

3. Achte bei der Kasuswahl
   bei den Wörtchen, neun an Zahl:
   An, auf, hinter, neben, in,
   über, unter, vor und zwischen.
   Willst du Antwort auf Wohin?

ist Akkusativ nur richtig;
wenn du Antwort willst auf Wo?
ist der Dativ einzig richtig.
Wenn du Antwort willst auf Wann?
Brauchst du auch den Dativ dann.

4. Während, wegen, trotz, anstatt
je den Genitiv nur hat.

____

____

____

____

4.151 Prepositions with Accusative

a. Fill in the appropriate accusative-preposition and supply the endings:

1. ________ d___ Tod ist kein Kraut gewachsen.
2. Dieser Umstand spricht ________ sich selbst.
3. Sie haben sich ________ drei Mark verrechnet.
4. Er kämpfte ________ ________ bitter___ Ende.
5. Sie halten ________ dick und dünn zusammen.
6. Bitte eintschuldigen Sie mich ________ einen Augenblick!
7. ________ sein Alter und ________ sein___ Bruder ist Hans groß.
8. Er setzte sich ________ ein Wort der Begrüßung und war ________ uns sehr unfreundlich.
9. Ich wette mit Ihnen ________ 10 Mark, daß Sie ________ dies___ Preis kein Auto bekommen.
10. ________ ihr___ Fleiß machte sich sich ________ d___ Firma verdient; sie wurde reichlich ________ ihr___ Mühe belohnt.

b. Translate the following sentences into German:

1. All around his property, he built a high fence.

____

2. When you hold the stamp against the light you'll see the watermark.

____

3. They built hotels all along that lovely beach.

____

4. The car spun and ran into the guard rail.

____

5. They all came on time except for the guest of honor.

____

6. She worked until fall, then she took a trip through the South.

____

7. Without a phone, we could not take care of Mother.

____

8. She ran through the town to the train station.

____

9. I am willing to offer up to a thousand marks for these antiques.

____

10. Could you come at 8 and work through the lunch hour until 3? I really can't do without your help.

____

____

4.152 Prepositions with Dative

Fill in the appropriate dative-preposition and supply the endings:

1. Er fuhr ______ d___ Straßenbahn ______ Bahnhof und dann ______ d___ Eilzug ______ Paris.
2. Sie wohnt ______ ihr___ Kindern ______ ihr___ Schwester.
3. ______ sein___ Haus hat er ______ d___ Prozeß alle Besitzungen verloren.
4. ______ drei Jahren kam er ______ Amerika zurück und lebt nun ______ ein paar Monaten ______ sein___ Verwandten.
5. Kann ich ______ Ihnen ______ Stadtmitte fahren? Ich muß meine Schuhe ______ Schuster abholen und meinen Mantel ______ Reinigung bringen.
6. Er erzählte uns ______ sein___ Leben und brachte uns ______ Lachen.
7. ______ ein___ Stück Brot habe ich ______ zehn Stunden nichts gegessen. Jetzt gehe ich ______ mein___ Tante und hoffe, ______ ihr ______ ein___ gut___ Mahlzeit bewirtet zu werden.
8. ______ ihr___ groß___ Freude bekam sie ______ Weihnachten ______ ih___ Bruder eine Bluse ______ rot___ Seide ______ apart___ Stickerei, die er ______ Indien und ______ sein___ weit___ Reisen mitgebracht hatte.
9. ______ unser___ Nachfrage ______ d___ bestellt___ Büchern wurden wir ______ Verlag benachrichtigt, daß sie ______ Luftpost gesandt wurden und ______ drei Tagen unterwegs seien.
10. Man ißt Fleisch ______ ein___ Teller ______ Messer und Gabel, denn ______ Schneiden braucht man das Messer. ______ ein___ Mahlzeit trinkt man Kaffee ______ Zucker ______ ein___ Tasse.

4.153 Prepositions with Accusative and Dative

a. The two-fold function of the prepositions with accusative and dative has a parallel of sorts in English 'in' and 'into.' Outline how you can use the English prepositions to explain the case requirements of the German prepositions.

____

____

b. Complete the sentences below with the appropriate accusative-or-dative prepositions and supply the endings of the determiners:

1. Hans schreibt einen Satz ________ sein___ Buch. Peter teilte mir ________ sein___ Brief mit, daß er krank ist.
2. Die Leute eilen ________ d___ Marktplatz. Sie strömen ________ d___ Marktplatz zusammen.
3. Als er ________ d___ Straße sah, erblickte er seinen Freund ________ d___ Straße.
4. Junge Mädchen sehen gern ________ d___ Spiegel, denn sie sehen sich gern ________ Spiegel.
5. ________ fünf Minuten kommt der Zug ________ Bahnsteig drei an.
6. Als er ________ d___ Publikum stand, fragte er sich, woher er den Mut hatte, ________ d___ Leute hinzutreten.
7. ________ d___ Nacht alle Katzen grau. ________ Abend werden die Faulen fleißig. Ein Ertrinkender klammert sich ________ ein___ Strohhalm.
8. ________ kein___ Fall und ________ kein___ Bedingung lasse ich mich von ihm ________ Licht führen und mich ________ Druck setzen.
9. ________ sein___ Wunsch taufte sie den Kleinen, den sie ________ Kindes Statt und ________ groß___ Schwierigkeiten angenommen hatte, ________ d___ Namen Friedrich.
10. ________ Zeitdruck und ________ groß___ Sorge eilte er ________ d___ Wiese ________ d___ Wald, stolperte dabei ________ d___ Wurzeln, rief die Kinder und fand sie schließlich ________ ein___ Baum ________ d___ Spitze des Berges.

4.154 Prepositions with the Genitive

a. Rewrite the following sentences, which employ the relatively rare prepositions of legal and bureaucratic language, by using more common prepositions or other constructions:

1. Die Miete beträgt einschließlich Heizung 300 DM.

   ____

2. Zwecks Verlängerung meines Passes muß ich zum Konsulat.

   ____

3. Seitens der Behörde wird eine Reform angestrebt.

   ____

4. Betreffs Ihrer Anfrage senden wir Ihnen eine Broschüre.

____

5. Kraft ihres Vermögens konnte sie den Armen helfen.

____

6. Mittels einer genauen Überprüfung wurde der Fehler entdeckt.

____

7. Vermöge seiner Stellung verschaffte er ihr eine Position.

____

8. Anläßlich des Kongresses findet eine Ausstellung statt.

____

9. Angesichts seiner schweren Krankheit braucht er Schonung.

____

10. Hinsichtlich des Energiemangels haben wir Versorgungsprobleme.

____

b. The prepositions durch, nach, zu, über and wegen can be postpositions also. As such, they are sometimes difficult to distinguish from prefixes of separable verbs. Circle (1) the preposition, (2) the postposition or (3) prefix and indicate which it is:

1. Er regte sich des Essens wegen auf. ____/____
2. Den ganzen Tag über arbeitete er die Rede durch. ____/____
3. Lächelnd kam sie auf die Gäste zu. ________
4. Plötzlich brach die Sonne durch die Wolken durch. ____/____
5. Der Sommer geht seinem Ende zu. ________
6. Er rannte uns des Geldes wegen nach. ____/____
7. Ich lese mich durch dieses dicke Buch durch. ____/____
8. Zu Beginn sprach er uns Mut zu. ____/____
9. Meiner Ansicht nach trat er damals zum Buddismus über. ___/___/___
10. Den granzen Monat über hat sie jede Nacht durch nicht schlafen können. ____/____

4.16 Pronouns
4.161 Personal Pronouns

a. Complete the sentences below with the appropriate possessive or personal pronoun:

1. Das Kind liebt ________ Mutter, ________ gehorcht ________, vertaut ________, ist immer bei ________, kann nicht leben ohne ________.

2. Herr Müller, wo haben ________ ________ schönen Wagen gekauft, mit dem ________ ________ Geschäftsreisen machen? Dürfte ich

einmal mit ________ mitfahren?

3. Warst du gestern in der Oper, Peter? Wie hat ________ ________ gefallen?

4. Liebe Eltern! Ich habe ________ lange nicht gschrieben, aber ich denke oft an ________. Wie geht es ________ und was machen ________ Pläne für ________ neues Haus? Könntet ________ ________ bitte ________ Bücher schicken. Liebe Grüße an ________ und an ________ Gäste, ________ Peter.

5. Ilse liest einen berühmten Roman, aber ________ gefällt ________ nicht, sondern langweilt ________. Lieber möchte ________ das Buch ________ Bruders lesen.

b. Replace the objects in the following sentences with personal pronouns. The accusative pronoun precedes the dative pronoun:

1. Wir zeigen dem Freund das Bild.

____

2. Den Kollegen habe ich die Nachricht gegeben.

____

3. Der Straßenlärm raubt dem Gelehrten die Ruhe.

____

4. Ein Freund hat der jungen Ausländerin die Stadt gezeigt.

____

5. Der Briefträger bringt den Leuten Briefe und Zeitungen.

____

c. Complete the following sentences with personal pronouns:

1. Magst du diese Bilder? Ich schenke ________ ________ gern.
2. Er darf nicht rauchen, der Arzt hat ________ ________ verboten.
3. Was gibt's Neues? Bitte erzählen ________ ________ ________!
4. Wo ist die heutige Zeitung? Bitte gib ________ ________!
5. Hast du keinen Schirm? Nimm meinen, ich bringe ________ ________.
6. Mein Geld ist weg. Hoffentlich hat ________ ________ niemand gestohlen.
7. Er hat viel für euch getan. Wie konnt ________ ________ ________ lohnen?
8. Ich weiß, daß er sich ________ erinnert.
9. Möchten Sie dieses Buch lesen? Ich borge ________ ________.
10. Wie bunutzt man diese Maschine? Bitte zeigen ________ ________ ________!

d. Rewrite the sentences below. Use es as the grammatical subject and transform the verb phrase into the passive or an impersonal reflexive construction:

1. Man beschloß, nicht länger auf ihn zu warten.

____

2. Man kann besser arbeiten, nachdem man gut gegessen hat.

____

3. Ich friere, wenn das Zimmer nicht geheizt ist.

____

4. Man besprach seine Ideen.

____

5. Ohne Geldsorgen kann man besser leben.

____

6. Der Student konnte nicht verstehen, warum er durchgefallen war.

____

7. Ich war ärgerlich, daß er immer zu spät kam.

____

8. Er hat Hunger, und er kauft sich Brot.

____

9. Hier kann man gut einkaufen.

____

10. Man versuchte, den Verunglückten zu retten.

____

4.1611 Reflexive Pronouns

a. Complete the following sentences with the reflexive pronoun corresponding to the subject:

1. Er sucht ________ einen Platz.
2. Ich freue ________ auf die Reise und habe ________ über die Vorbereitungen schon Gedanken gemacht.
3. Leider haben wir ________ verspätet.
4. Bitte bedient ________ selbst!
5. Wenn hast du ________ diesen hübschen Hut gekauft?
6. Herr Peters, bitte ärgern Sie ________ nicht darüber!
7. Wann läßt du ________ die Haare schneiden?
8. Das habe ich ________ leichter vorgestellt.
9. Sie hat ________ damit einverstanden erklärt.
10. Ich kann ________ diese Dummheit nicht verzeihen.

b. Rewrite the following sentences in the present perfect tense with a reflexive verb:

1. Er ist in Inge verliebt. Er hat ________ in Inge verliebt.
2. Bist du schon rasiert? ______________________________
3. Ich bin sehr erkältet. ______________________________

4. Ist sie jetzt beruhigt? ______________________
5. Er ist gut vorbereitet. ______________________
6. Wir sind daran gewöhnt. ______________________
7. Ich bin gut ausgeruht. ______________________
8. Seid ihr schon angezogen? ______________________
9. Er ist immer betrunken. ______________________
10. Ich bin dazu entschlossen. ______________________

c. Translate the following sentences into German; use a reflexive predicate:

1. Have you had enough sleep?

____

2. He broke an arm and cannot dress himself.

____

3. I've caught an awful cold.

____

4. They got a divorce.

____

5. I can't imagine why he fell in love with Eva.

____

6. He decided to get drunk.

____

7. Did you see how they kissed?

____

8. You can answer your question yourself.

____

9. We like one another and help each other.

____

10. She could not get used to how he behaved.

____

4.162 Prepositional Pronouns

a. Compare the da-compounds with English compounds such as 'thereby' and 'thereupon' and comment on whether they are helpful in explaining the German da-compounds.

____

____

b. Replace the prepositional phrases with the appropriate prepositional pronouns:

1. Seit seiner Rückkehr aus Amerika hat er noch nicht mit den Großeltern gesprochen.

2. Warum hast du mich nicht an die Rechnung erinnert?

3. Hast du dich schon bei Tante Emma für das Geschenk bedankt?

4. Wegen des Regens besuchen wir statt des Picknicks unsere Freunde.

5. Wir erwarten von der Sekretärin eine Antwort auf unsere Aufrage.

6. Er kämpfte gegen den Tyrann für die Freiheit.

7. Hast du mit den Mitgliedern über die Pläne gesprochen?

8. Während seiner Krankheit kann ich mich nicht auf die Prüfung vorbereiten.

9. Denkst du gern an die schönen Ferien?

10. Sie ist eifersüchtig auf ihren Mann und seinen Erfolg.

c. Complete the following sentences with the preposition required by the valence of the predicate or by the modifier, and give the correct prepositional pronoun:

1. Warum hast du meine Bluse gewaschen? Ich hatte dich nicht ____________ gebeten.
2. Wie geht es deinem Bruder? Ich habe schon lange nichts mehr ____________ gehört.
3. Hast du das Buch zuende gelesen? Nein, ich habe erst gestern ____________ begonnen.
4. Neulich habe ich Hans getroffen, ich soll dich ____________ grüßen.
5. Im Sommer haben wir unser Haus renoviert, und die Kinder haben alle ____________ geholfen.
6. Er hat gerade seinen Doktor gemacht. Hast du ihm schon ____________ gratuliert?

7. Wir kennen Fräulein Schmitt gut, sie hat früher ____________ gearbeitet.
8. Dort steht ein Polizist. Wenden Sie sich ____________!
9. Habt ihr noch meinen Mantel? Ich wollte euch schon lange ____________ fragen.
10. Nächstes Jahr fahren wir nach Norwegen. Wir freuen uns schon sehr ____________.

4.163 Determiners as Pronouns

a. Replace the noun phrase with the der-determiner as pronoun:
   1. Wir können unserem Direktor nicht vertrauen. Wir glauben __________ nicht und sind uns __________ nicht sicher.
   2. Hans und Peter haben mich ins Kino eingeladen, aber mit __________ mag ich nicht gehen.
   3. Lieber gehe ich mit Inge, __________ ist nett.
   4. Er hat uns Wein gebracht. __________ war nett von ihm.
   5. Fritz ist hilfsbereit. Durch __________ habe ich meine Bücher wiedergefunden. Ich muß __________ noch danken.

b. Complete the following sentences with derselbe or der gleiche in the appropriate form:
   1. Er geht mit Inge in ____________ Schulklasse. Vor 20 Jahren hat seine Mutter in ____________ gessessen.
   2. Ilse und ich haben ____________ Geschmack. Sie hat sich neulich ____________ Kleid gekauft wie ich.
   3. Zwillinge sind Geschwister, die an ____________ Tag geboren sind.
   4. Er möchte das Wiener Schnitzel. Bitte geben Sie mir ____________!
   5. Studienkollegen sind Studenten, die an ____________ Universität studieren und ____________ Ziele haben.

c. In questions, welch- means 'which?'; in exclamations, it is uninflected and followed by an ein-determiner and means 'what a!'; as a pronoun, it means 'some' or 'any.' Complete the sentences below with the correct form:
   1. ____________ herrlicher Tag heute ist!
   2. Mit ____________ Wagen fahren Sie in die Stadt?
   3. Sie hat drei Stück Kuchen. Ich möchte auch ____________ haben.
   4. Brauchst du Zigaretten? Ich kann dir ____________ aus der mitbringen. ____________ rauchst du am liebsten?
   5. ____________ verrückten Hut Frau Müller heute trägt! Frau Schneider hat auch Hüte, aber sie trägt nie ____________.

4.164 Indefinite Pronouns

Translate the following sentences into German, using indefinite pronouns:

1. "Everyman" is a famous drama by Hugo von Hofmannsthal.

___

2. Nobody famous was in the picture which was praised by everybody.

___

3. Someone is knocking. Can't anybody open the door? Somebody open the door! I don't want to talk to anybody.

___

___

4. Could you please give me some money? I have nothing good to eat and I'd like to buy something.

___

___

5. What would you like to drink? Anything, but some red wine would be nice.

___

___

6. This is not everybody's idea of something positive.

___

7. When he is sick, he insults people and does not want to see anybody or anything.

___

___

8. We did not find out anything at all. We could not ask anybody nor request anybody's help.

___

___

9. One should really be more grateful to him, since he always helps people and makes everybody's troubles his own.

___

___

10. Don't complain that you aren't somebody rich and famous!

___

4.165 Interrogative Pronouns

a. Write questions which elicit the underlined constituents of the following sentences:

1. Peter hat sich bei Tante Minna für das Buch bedankt.

2. Die ersten Frühlingsblumen sind die Schneeglöckchen.

3. Wir gehen mit unserm besten Freund im Zoo spazieren.

4. Gestern trug Frau Moser einen hellgrünen Mantel.

5. Er kann nicht mit Inge ins Kino gehen. Er muß arbeiten.

6. Die Opern Verdis sind weltbekannt und erfolgreich.

7. Wegen seiner Freundlichkeit helfen wir dem Lehrer gern.

8. Ich habe Hänschen einen Groschen für Eis gegeben.

9. Um 9 Uhr kommt sie ohne Hausaufgaben zu uns.

10. Trotz des guten Wetters bleiben wir wegen seiner Krankheit zu Haus.

b. Translate the following sentences into German:

1. What did you do that for?

2. Because of which order must he leave?

3. How come he failed the exam?

4. Whose book is that?

5. What could she mean by that?

6. With whom did you discuss the matter?

7. What pot should I cook this in?

8. When and where can I meet you?

9. What are you waiting for?

10. What letters do you expect?

4.17 Coordination of Noun Phrases

Translate the following sentences into German:

1. Neither he nor I knew the answer.

2. He was rich as well as good looking.

3. He wants to buy either a piece of land or a small farm.

4. She is not only my friend but also my esteemed colleague.

5. Could you or they bring the book along?

6. Husband, wife and children sat down to eat.

7. Their requests were neither modest nor reasonable.

8. No, I want neither this nor that.

9. He is neither a good nor a successful worker.

10. They breed horses as well as donkeys and very famous cows.

____

4.2 Use and Function of Forms in the Noun Phrase
4.21 Use of Nouns

a. Match the right column with the left:

1. functional category	1. adverb
___ ___ ___	2. der-determiner
	3. preposition
2. functional marker	4. case
	5. past participle
___ ___ ___	6. number
3. specifier	7. genitive
	8. pronoun
___ ___	9. ordinal number
___ ___	10. present participle
4. modifier	11. apposition
	12. prepositional phrase
___ ___	13. ein-determiner
	14. case
___ ___	15. adjective
5. Replacement	
___	

b. Which of the above are uninflected?

___ ___

c. In what instances do the English equivalents of the above show inflection?

___ ___

4.211 Nominalization

a. Replace the verb phrase with verb+accusative object:

1. Der Professor referierte über die Atomforschung.

____

2. Er beschloß, nach Amerika auszuwandern.

____

3. Sie stimmten unserem Plan zu.

____

4. Wir interessieren uns sehr für Mythologie.

____

5. Er warf ihr vor, daß sie zu viel Geld ausgibt.

____

6. Die Polizei kann die Schuld des Angeklagten nicht beweisen.

____

7. Die Opposition kritisierte die Regierungspartei aufs schärfste.

____

8. Sie konnte nicht entscheiden, wer das tun sollte.

____

9. Ich bevorzuge dieses Restaurant.

____

10. Er bezweifelte den Erfolg des Experiments.

____

b. Replace the verb+noun construction with a verb:

1. Bitte geben Sie mir sofort Nachricht, wenn sie es wissen.

____

2. Wir haben ihm den Auftrag gegeben, unser Haus zu bauen.

____

3. Die Leistungen der Sportler machten groβen Eindruck auf das Publikum. ______________________________

____

4. Darf ich Ihnen zur Promotion meinen Glückwunsch aussprechen?

____

5. Man sollte dieser Tatsache nicht zu geringen Wert beimessen.

____

6. Seine Tüchtigkeit hat groβen Einfluβ auf die Firma ausgeübt.

____

7. Könnten Sie einen Eid darauf leisten?

____

8. Er erteilte ihn die Vollmacht, den Vertrag abzuschlieβen.

____

9. Was gibt dir das Recht zu so scharfer Kritik?

____

10. Wir haben einen Antrag auf neue Reisepässe gestellt.

____

c. Choose the appropriate verb for the verb+prepositional phrase construction from the following list:

bringen, gehen, geraten, ziehen, stellen, kommen, setzen, geben

1. Unser Wunsch ist schnell in Erfüllung ____________.
2. Auf der nassen Straβe ____________ der Wagen ins Schleudern.
3. Er will nicht damit in Verbindung ____________ werden.
4. Ich möchte Ihre Zeit nicht langer in Anspruch ____________.
5. Die Produktion ____________ überraschend schnell in Gang.

6. Er ____________ seine Arbeiter rücksichtslos unter Druck.
7. Diese Ereignisse sind bereits in Vergessenheit ____________.
8. Niemand ____________ in Zweifel, daβ das richtig war.
9. Man muβ diese Schwierigkeiten in Kauf ____________.
10. Auch diese Möglichkeit sollte in Betracht ____________ werden.
11. Bitte ____________ diesen Punkt bald zur Diskussion!
12. Sollten wir die Herstellung des Produkts in Auftrag ____________?
13. Beim Umzug ist ihr gutes Geschirr zu Bruch ____________.
14. Er wollte mich mit dieser Frage auf die Probe ____________.
15. Wenn du dich nicht zur Wehr ____________, glaubt man, du bist doch schuldig.
16. Er hat mir sein Sommerhaus zur Verfügung ____________.
17. Man ____________ in Versuchung, zu viel zu kaufen.
18. Nur langsam ____________ sich der Zug in Bewegung.
19. Es ____________ außer Frage, daβ alles teurer wird.
20. Mit sechzig ____________ er sich zur Ruhe.

4.22 Use of Adjectives

a. Would it be practical and desirable to use different terminology for 'adjective in the noun phrase' versus 'adjective in the verb phrase,' as well as 'participle in noun phrase' and 'participle in verb phrase'?

____

b. To illustrate the change of grammatical class (e.g., from adjective to noun) of many words, sort out the following words and place them in the proper category of their origin:

Anliegen, Hammel, Leutnant, aber, willkommen, Datum, während, Stahl, Eltern, Interesse, Ufer, Souper, verrückt, Wesen, Gram, Geier, Major, untertan, intelligent, Vermögen, Jünger, verlegen, Heiland, Greis, Vergnügen, Herr, erhaben, abwesend, Feind, Aperitif.

1. ORIGINAL ADJECTIVE	2. ORIGINAL PAST PARTICIPLE	3. ORIGINAL PRESENT PARTICIPLE
____________	____________	____________
____________	____________	____________
____________	____________	____________
____________	____________	____________
____________	____________	____________
____________	____________	____________

4. ORIGINAL INFINITIVE

______
______
______
______
______
______
______

5. ORIGINAL COMPARATIVE

______
______
______
______
______
______
______

4.23 Use of Functional Markers
4.231 Use of Determiners

Provide the appropriate determiner where necessary and indicate where no determiner is used:

1. ______ Reise in ______ Alpen, in ______ Schweiz, oder nach ______ Österreich ist schön.
2. Er hat ______ Talent. Sicher wird er ______ Künstler, vielleicht ______ großer Musiker.
3. Ich mag ______ schwarzen Kaffee nicht; ich trinke ______ Kaffee immer mit ______ Zucker und ______ Sahne.
4. Mittelalterliche Städte sind ______ herrliche Rothenburg und ______ hübsche Dinkelsbühl in ______ Bayern.
5. In ______ Vereinigten Staaten gibt es ______ größten Wolkenkratzer in ______ Welt.
6. ______ Rhein fleißt durch ______ Deutschland und ______ Niederlande und mündet in ______ Nordsee.
7. ______ höchste Berg in ______ ganz Deutschland ist ______ Zugspitze in ______ Bayrischen Alpen.
8. ______ Ring ist aus ______ Platin, ______ ______ kostbarsten Metalle ______ Welt.
9. ______ Titanic ist mit ______ Mann und ______ Maus in ______ Atlantischen Ozean versunken.
10. Nach ______ Mittagessen ißt sie immer ______ Orange.

4.232 Use of Prepositions

a. Complete the following clauses using the correct preposition and determiner or adjective ending:

1. Dieses Buch führt ______ d___ Grundbegriffe der Physik ein.
2. Am Jahresende scheidet er ______ unser___ Betrieb aus.
3. Man ist ______ dies___ Plan abgekommen.
4. Der ______ d___ Zirkus ausgebrochen___ Bär wurde wieder eingefangen.

5. Sie hat den Kuchen ______ sechs gleiche Teile eingeteilt.
6. ______ d___ Blumentopf hat sie die Erde fest eingedrückt.
7. Sie will ______ ihr___ Entschluβ nicht abweichen.
8. Der Preis ist ______ d___ Paket aufgedruckt.
9. Das Schiff ist im Nebel ______ d___ Eisberg aufgelaufen.
10. Bitte ziehen Sie ______ dies___ Rechnung 10 % ab!

b. Complete the story with prepositions:

1. Herr Meier arbeitet ______ Montag ______ Freitag ______ einem Büro.
2. ______ acht Uhr beginnt er ______ seiner Arbeit, und ______ ein und zwei Uhr hat er Mittagspause.
3. ______ dieser Pause geht er ______ seinem Kollegen ______ Mittagessen ______ ein Gasthaus ______ der Nähe.
4. ______ des Essens unterhält er sich ______ ihm ______ seine Urlaubspläne.
5. ______ diesem Sommer will er ______ Beispiel ______ die Nordsee reisen.
6. ______ zwei Jahren war er schon einmal dort.
7. Sein Kollege erzählt ______ seiner Familie.
8. ______ dem Essen rauchen sie eine Zigarette; dann gehen sie ______ Büro zurück.
9. Herr Meier wartet heute ungeduldig ______ das Ende der Arbeitszeit.
10. ______ des Windes ______ Meer will er sich einen Mantel kaufen.
11. ______ der Straβenbahn fährt er ______ dem Büro ______ einem guten Herrengeschäft.
12. Er tritt ______ das Geschäft ein und fragt ______ einem Mantel.
13. ______ langem Suchen findet er einen Mantel ______ Hellgrau ______ einem günstigen Preis.
14. Er verabschiedet sich ______ dem höflichen Verkäufer und zahlt ______ der Kasse.
15. ______ seinen neuen Mantel freut er sich sehr.
16. ______ Sonntag zieht er ihn ______ des warmen Wetters an.
17. Er geht ______ Nachmittag ______ ein kleines Café und hängt den Mantel ______ einen Haken ______ der Tür.
18. Er iβt und trinkt ______ groβem Appetit.
19. Plötzlich erschrickt er: Der Mantel hänge nicht mehr ______ dem Haken.
20. Ein Herr sagt ______ ihm: "Dort ______ der Ecke saβ ein junger Mann; er ist ______ fünf Minuten weggegangen.

21. Er hat einen Mantel ______ diesem Haken mitgenommen. Aber da hängt ja noch ein Mantel."
22. Sicher hat der junge Mann ______ seines Mantel den Mantel ______ Herrn Meier angezogen.
23. Er ruft den Wirt und sagt ______ zorniger Stimme: "Ein Mann ist ______ meinem Mantel ______ Ihrem Café fortgegangen.
24. Ich habe den Mantel ______ einigen Tagen ______ 150 Mark gekauft.
25. Ich muß Sie ______ 150 Mark bitten."
26. ______ diesem Augenblick kommt ein junger Mann ______ die Tür.
27. Er hat einen hellgrauen Mantel ______ der Hand.
28. Er entschuldigt sich Herrn Meier ______ sein Versehen.
29. Herr Meier freut sich und bestellt ______ dem Wirt eine Flasche Wein ______ sich und den jungen Mann.
30. ______ diesem Erlebnis hängt Herr Meier seinen Mantel ______ einem Gasthaus nicht mehr ______ den Haken, sondern legt ihn ______ sich ______ einen Stuhl.

4.24 Use of Functional Categories
4.241 Use of Number

a. Collective terms can be morphologically singular or plural. To indicate one entity of the collective, a singular can be formed by -stück, -art or -sorte, or by using a noun which denotes one part of the collective.

Rewrite the following in the singular:

1. Diese Möbel sind besonders wertvoll.

____

2. In den Ferien sollte man sich erholen.

____

3. Die Polizei ist unser Freund und Helfer.

____

4. Ich liebe diesen Schmuck sehr.

____

5. Dieses ausländische Obst wird immer teurer.

____

6. Das Publikum klatschte begeistert.

____

7. Hier sind Niederschläge besonders häufig.

____

8. Seine Eltern sind ins Gebirge gefahren.

____

9. Ein Förster muß den Wald gut kennen.

____

10. Im Herbst verlieren einige Gehölze ihr Laub.

____

b. Translate the following sentences into German:

1. That'll be twelve marks and twenty four pennies.

____

2. He is two meters tall and weighs 210 pounds.

____

3. Give me two liters of milk and three bars of soap!

____

4. He bought two dozen shirts, ten pairs of socks and one pair of pants.

____

5. She drank three cups of coffee and ate four pieces of cake.

____

6. In his cellar he has two barrels of beer and hundreds of bottles of wine.

____

7. It's twenty degrees below zero and we have three meters of snow.

____

8. He destroyed hundreds of books and broke two precious glasses.

____

9. After saving for two years, he still had only a few pennies.

____

10. No, we won't accept dollars; please pay with marks!

____

4.242 Use of Case
4.2421 - 4.2424 Use of Nominative - Genitive

Identify the case of the underlined noun phrases and indicate how you could identify the case by (1) overt case markers, (2) the valence of the predicates, (3) congruence, (4) prepositions, or (5) other clause constituents:

1. Hans hat zwei Mäntel aus Leder.

____

2. Drei Studenten hat Inge um Hilfe gebeten.

____

3. Diese Reise kostete Frau Meier zweitausend Mark.

____

4. Hohe Steuern berauben erfolgreiche Firmen aller Profite.

5. Langweiligen Sendungen hört Tante Minna nicht gern zu.

6. Von Frankreich fuhr Fräulein Müller nach England.

7. In Italien ließ Fritz sich zwei Anzüge machen.

8. Mein Lehrer war damals auch Schuldirektor.

9. Hat Frau Peters Firma Meier Drohbriefe geschreiben?

10. Rehe grasten in Wald und Feld.

4.25 Use of Pronouns

Replace the underlined noun phrases with the pronouns as indicated:

1. (pers. pron.): Mein Vater und seine Schwester sind in Italien.

2. (prep. pron): Wegen seiner Armut bat er um Almosen.

3. (poss. pron): Bitte gib mir das Buch deines Bruders!

4. (inter. pron): Ich helfe Ihnen gern bei der Arbeit.

5. (det. as pron.): Mit Else will ich nicht sprechen.

6. (refl. pron.): Er fragt sie, warum das geschah.

7. (prep. pron): Ich warte auf Nachricht von meinen Eltern.

8. (inter. pron.): Sie wohnen schon lange in England.

9. (manch-): Viele Leute fürchten eine Inflation.

10. (pers. pron.): Ich habe den Film und das Drama gesehen.

4.3 The Noun Phrase as Syntactical Unit
4.31 - 4.324 Subject - Prepositional Object

a. In a clause, can one predicate have
   1. two or more subjects? ____________
   2. two or more accusative objects? ____________
   3. two or more predicate nominatives? ____________
   4. two or more dative objects? ____________
   5. two or more prepositional objects? ____________
   6. two or more noun phrases as modifiers? ____________

b. Give the appropriate interrogative pronoun that elicits the syntactical units:

SYNTACTICAL UNIT	INTERROGATIVE	
	PERSON	THING
1. SUBJECT	____________	____________
2. ACCUSATIVE OBJECT	____________	____________
3. DATIVE OBJECT	____________	
4. GENITIVE OBJECT	____________	
5. PREPOSITIONAL OBJECT	____________	____________

4.33 - 4.331 Noun Phrases as Modifiers - Prepositional Phrases as Modifiers

a. Use the noun phrases in parentheses as modifiers in the accusative or genitive:
   1. (ein Kilometer): Wir sind ________________ zu Fuß gegangen.
   2. (ein Tag): Er wird noch ________________ zurückkehren.
   3. (ein Monat): Sie ist schon ________________ in Deutschland.
   4. (jeder zweite Tag): Sie kommen nur ________________ zur Schule.
   5. (eine Nacht (!)): ________________ wachten wir wegen des Sturms auf.
   6. (ein Zentimeter): Er streicht die Butter ________________ dick auf sein Brot.
   7. (ein Pfennig): Diese alten Sachen sind nicht ________________ wert.
   8. (der Morgen): Das Aufstehen fällt ihm ________________ schwer.
   9. (ein Meter siebzig): Ich bin ________________ groß.

10. (kein Augenblick): Wir können ______________ mehr warten.

b. Translate the following clauses into German and indicate what type of modifier each prepositional phrases is:

1. He forgot his books in his desk at school.

____ __________

2. I need different clothes for this work.

____ __________

3. Without Peter's help, you would not have managed it.

____ __________

4. She called us at three o'clock in the morning.

____ __________

5. Because of the cold, we should have built a fire.

____ __________

6. She screamed with anger and fear.

____ __________

7. He sleeps till noon in spite of his upcoming exam.

____ __________

8. Meet me after dinner by the train station!

____ __________

9. Why don't you cut the string with the sissors?

____ __________

10. He has not been at work for four weeks.

____ __________

4.34 Valence of the Noun Phrase

Complete the sentences with the appropriate preposition and supply the correct endings of determiners:

1. Ich habe großen Appetit __________ ein Wiener Schnitzel.
2. Die Erinnerung __________ unser____ Flucht __________ d____ feindlichen Armeen ist schmerzlich.
3. Unser Gespräch __________ sein____ Erfolg war verfrüht.
4. Sie hat große Freude __________ ihr____ neuen Wagen, aber große Angst __________ d____ Verkehr __________ d____ Stattmitte.
5. __________ Andenken __________ d____ Reise kaufte sie Löffel.
6. Seine Antwort __________ unser____ Frage __________ d____ Verbleib der Waren war unbefriedigend.
7. Die Kosten __________ d____ Umbau sind zu hoch.
8. Er verweigert die Aussage __________ sein____ Wohnort.
9. __________ seine Krankheit verzögerte sich die Arbeit __________ sein____ Dissertation und die Vorbereitung __________ d____ Prüfung.

10. Ich gebe Ihrer Bitte __________ ein__ Einführung __________ d__ Grammatik gern nach.

4.4 Modification of the Noun Phrase

4.41 Adverbs Modifying Noun Phrases

a. Translate the following clauses into German and use emphatic adverbs to modify the noun phrase:

1. That has just happened to the nicest people.

____

2. His wife bought really the most expensive dress.

____

3. Just the newest car the thieves had to steal.

____

4. Do they have any children at all?

____

5. That man is indeed not worthy of the trust.

____

b. Translate the following sentences and use restrictive adverbs:

1. Only the best students get scholarships.

____

2. She has been here for only an hour.

____

3. He is too young. He doesn't yet have a driver's license.

____

4. They wanted only advice.

____

5. He died when he was only five years old.

____

c. Complete the clauses below with the following modifier adverbs: rechts, da, von heute, geradeaus, heutzutage, morgens, herunter, ganz vorn, hinein, oben, dort:

1. Wo ist denn die Zeitung __________?
2. Dieser Herr __________ ist mir unbekannt.
3. Die Jugend __________ lebt anders als ihre Eltern.
4. Sie sitzen immer im Theater __________.
5. Eilig rannte sie die Treppen __________.
6. Auf unser Dach __________ wünsche ich mir einen Wetterhahn.
7. Gehen Sie die Straße __________, dann __________ um die Ecke!

8. Bitte zeigen Sie mir die blaue Bluse ____________!
9. Die erste Klasse ____________ sollte nicht langweilig sein.
10. Wie konnten die Diebe ins Haus ____________ kommen?

4.42 Noun Phrases modifying Noun Phrases
4.421 Apposition

a. Complete the sentences using determiners and supply appropriate adjective endings:

1. Die Konferenz fand in Wien, ___________ Hauptstadt Osterreichs, statt.
2. Sie wollen ein Kind, __________ klein____ Jungen, adoptieren.
3. Sein Reiseziel ist Hamburg, __________ alt____, schön____ Hansestadt.
4. Auf Peter, mein____ best____ Freund, ein____ Regierungsdirektor, wurde ein Mordanschlag geplant.
5. Wegen seiner Erkrankung, vermutlich ein____ Nervenentzündung, konnte er nicht an der Sitzung, d____ wichtigst____ des Jahres, teilnehmen.
6. Er fährt gern nach Holland, __________ Land der Tulpen.
7. Für seine Dissertation, ein____ wesentlich____ Beitrag zur Geschichte, bekam er einen Preis.
8. Von dem Verbrecher, d____ Boss einer Bande, fehlt jede Spur.
9. Gestern sah ich sie in Begleitung unserer Nachbarn, ein____ reizend____, alt____ Ehepaar____.
10. Anstatt seines Bruders, ein____ erfolgreich____ Juristen, hat Fritz, d____ erfolglos____ Faulpelz, seine Eltern beerbt.

b. Complete the appositions:

1. Wenden Sie sich an Herrn Schmitt als unser____ Spezialisten.
2. Man rühmte ihn als ein____ mutig____ Kämpfer für die Freiheit.
3. Wir sprachen mit dem Direktor als d____ Verantwortlich____.
4. Ich habe ihm als d____ Ältest____ den Vortritt gelassen.
5. Nur Dr. Hansen als d____ behandelnd____ Arzt kann das entscheiden.

c. Fill in the appositions:

1. (der Fromme, der Große, der Kaiser, der Deutsche, der Kahle): Ludwig _____________, der Sohn Karls _____________, teilte das Reich unter seine drei Söhne: Lothar _____________, Ludwig _________________________ und Karl ____________________.

2. (der Fünfte, der Herr über Europa und Amerika): Im Reich Karls _____________, __________________, ging die Sonne nicht unter.

3. (der Achte, der König von England, der zuvor einzige Glaube): Wir sprachen von Heinrich ______________, der als ______________ ______________ mit der katholischen Kirche, ______________ brach.
4. (der Erste, der Zweite): Die Münchner Ludwigstraße ist nach König Ludwig ______________ bennant, und die Maximilianstraße erinnert an König Maximilian ______________.
5. (der Große, ein bodenschatzreiches Land): Wegen der Kriege Friedrichs ______________ wurde Schlesien ______________, deutsch.

d. Complete the appositions with the determiner:

1. Die Konferenz wurde für Donnerstag, __________ 2. Mai, geplant.
2. Wir mußten unsere Feier auf Dienstag, __________ 12. April, verschieben.
3. Geben Sie die Anträge bis Freitag, __________ 20. August, ab!
4. Am 19. Oktober, ein ___ Sonntag, trafen wir uns im Haus der Eltern.
5. Könnten Sie uns am kommenden Montag, __________ 15. Juni, Bescheid geben, ob Sie für Donnerstag, __________ 19. Juni, die Kollegen zusammenrufen können?

4.422 Genitive Modifier

a. Form the genitive modifier:

1. Das Buch gehört meiner kleinen Schwester
   Das ist das ______________________________
2. Dieser ausländische Student kam mit dem Fahrrad.
   Dort steht ______________________________
3. Ihr neues Haus hat zwei Schornsteine.
   Siehst du ______________________________?
4. Der Radioapparat gehört unserem netten Mieter.
   Bitte spiele nicht mit ______________________________!
5. Meine Kinder haben eine besonders gute Leherin.
   Heute treffe ich mich mit ______________________________
6. Die Schüler in dieser Klasse haben gute Arbeiten geschrieben.
   Dort liegen ______________________________
7. Das Auto dort drüben gehört Onkel Otto.
   Wo ist ______________________________?
8. Meine Mutter hat eine Schwester. Ihre Tochter ist meine Kusine.
   Meine Kusine ist ______________________________
9. Die großen Geschäfte haben hellerleuchtete Schaufenster.
   Wir sehen gern in ______________________________

10. Großvater findet seine Zigarren nicht.

    Wo sind ______________________________

b. Form the plural and note that von + dative must be used when no determiner or adjective precedes the noun:

1. Die Größe eines Kontinents war früher schwer zu ermessen.

   ____

2. Die Arbeit eines Schülers ist nicht so gut wie die eines Professors.

   ____

3. Die Bewohner einer großen Stadt sind oft einsamer als die Bewohner eines kleinen Dorfes.

   ____

   ____

4. Die Arbeit eines Tages ist oft unbefriedigend.

   ____

5. Das Möblieren eines neuen Hauses kann sehr teuer sein.

   ____

6. Das Versprechen eines Erwachsenen ist verläßlicher als das eines kleinen Kindes.

   ____

   ____

7. Das Erlernen einer fremden Sprache ist nicht leicht.

   ____

8. Die Vorhersage eines Wetterberichts ist oft falsch.

   ____

9. Das Schreiben eines Buches erfordert die Geduld eines Engels.

   ____

10. Das Blühen einer schönen Rose erfreut uns im Sommer.

    ____

4.423 Prepositional Modifiers

a. Translate the clauses below into German and indicate what type of prepositional modifier is used:

1. The train from Berlin has just arrived.

   ______________________________ __________

2. Can you give me some medicine for a sore throat?

   ______________________________ __________

3. Students are tired in classes in the afternoon.

   ______________________________ __________

4. She spoke with a man in a black suit.

5. He wants a job with much responsibility.

6. Her arrival in spite of the late hour pleases us.

7. For once I'd like a dinner without interruption.

8. He always smokes cigarettes with filters.

9. His work for the town satisfied him greatly.

10. The plane flew over the border between Germany and Austria.

b. Transform the second clause into a constituent of the noun phrase in the first clause, e.g.: Sie zieht ein neues Kleid an. Das Kleid ist frisch gereinigt.: Sie zieht ein frisch gereinigtes Kleid an.

1. In den Straßen herrscht viel Verkehr. Die Straßen sind in der Stadtmitte besonders eng.

2. Hat man die Verbrecher wieder gefaßt? Sie sind aus dem Gefängnis geflohen. Das Gefängnis ist in der Kreisstadt.

3. Er holte sein Fahrrad aus der Garage. Die Garage ist hinter dem Haus. Das Fahrrad war sein liebstes Verkehrsmittel.

4. Sie legte die Eier in Wasser. Die Eier waren fürs Frühstück. Das Wasser kochte gerade.

5. Die Demonstranten durchbrachen die Absperrung. Die Polizei führte die Absperrung durch. Man demonstrierte gegen Krieg.

4.43 Negation of the Noun Phrase

Negate the underlined constituents of the noun phrases in the following sentences:

1. Sie entdeckte einen zu seinen Lebzeiten bekannten Dichter.

 ____

2. Durch Geld und gute Worte konnte man uns überzeugen.

 ____

3. Ich besitze ein Auto.

 ____

4. Er hat einen Roman und eine Novelle geschrieben.

 ____

5. Wir hörten von seinem uns sehr erstaunenden Erfolg.

 ____

6. Einer von seinen Söhnen wird die Firma übernehmen.

 ____

7. Sie wurde durch das Telefon und durch Besucher gestört.

 ____

8. Weihnachten essen wir einen Puter oder eine Gans.

 ____

9. Alle freuen sich über den Schnee im Winter.

 ____

10. Ich habe von ihm und von ihr Post erhalten.

 ____

CHAPTER FIVE

5. SENTENCES AND CLAUSES
5.1 Sentences

Define the following terms:

1. Sentence ______________________________
2. Clause ______________________________
3. Phrase ______________________________
4. Construction ______________________________

5.11 Constituents of Sentences

Separate the syntactical constituents of the following clauses or sentences by slashes and write under each constituent what it is, e.g. 'subject,' 'predicate,' 'modifier,' etc.

1. Unserem lieben Großvater haben wir zum Geburtstag gratuliert.

   ____

2. Wer hat dem Briefträger die Tür geöffnet?

   ____

3. Sehr müde bin ich heute, denn ich habe schlecht geschlafen.

   ____

4. Bitte kommt nicht vor 8 Uhr!

   ____

5. Sie fahren morgen zur Büchermesse nach Frankfurt.

   ____

5.2 Main Clauses
5.21 Types of Main Clauses

a. Identify the types of main clauses below as type 1 or 2:

1. Heute kann er sicher nicht kommen. ____
2. Mit welcher Absicht hat er das getan? ____
3. Wäre doch bloß das Wetter besser! ____
4. Würdest du ihn bitte von uns grüßen? ____
5. (Riefe er an), wäre ich froh. ____
6. Ganz ohne Bedingungen kann das nicht sein. ____
7. Müssen Sie das wirklich machen? ____
8. (Als sie Kinder waren), lebten sie in Paris. ____
9. Beantworten Sie bitte den Brief sofort! ____
10. Wirklich schwer krank war er. ____

b. Mark Twain made numerous observations about the German language. Here is one of them:

"The Germans have an inhuman way of cutting up their verbs... They take part of the verb and put it down here, like a stake, and they take the other part of it and put it yonder like another stake, and between these limits they just shovel German."

1. What type of clause does Mark Twain describe?

____

2. What form of the verb constitutes his first "stake"?

____

3. What part of the predicate is the second "stake"?

____

4. What constituents of clauses are "shoveled between the stakes"?

____

____

5.211 Communicative Function

a. Identify the communicative modes of the following clauses by indicating whether they are (1) statements, (2a) alternative questions, (2b) word questions, (3) imperatives or (4) exclamation:

1. Wo hast du denn dieses hübsche Kleid gekauft... ____
2. Ach, das ist aber nett von Ihnen... ____
3. Kannst du mir denn das nicht erzählen... ____
4. Beauftragt Firma Müller damit... ____
5. Das war uns gänzlich unbekannt... ____
6. Fahren wir mit dem Auto oder dem Bus... ____

7. So ein gutes Essen hat sie gekocht... ____________
8. Zu welchem Zeitpunkt können Sie liefern... ____________
9. Könnten Sie doch mitgehen... ____________
10. Sie fragte ihn mehrmals danach... ____________

b. Answer the following questions positively or negatively, as indicated:

1. Haben Sie denn die heutige Zeitung nicht gelesen?
(pos.) ____________
2. Hast du auch Milch vom Laden mitgebracht?
(neg.) ____________
3. Werden Sie nächstes Jahr nach Europa reisen?
(pos.) ____________
4. Werdet ihr ihn denn nicht an der Uni sehen?
(pos.) ____________
5. Wäre denn das nicht auch möglich?
(pos.) ____________
6. Hat er wirklich damals keinen Erfolg gehabt?
(pos.) ____________
7. War sie vorige Woche noch in Frankreich?
(neg.) ____________
8. Ist diese Geschichte nicht ungewöhnlich?
(pos.) ____________
9. Hast du schon den Tisch gedeckt?
(neg.) ____________
10. Wollten Sie mit dem Direktor sprechen?
(pos.) ____________

5.22 Position of Constituents in Main Clauses
5.221 Position of Predicate

Construct main clauses of type 2 in the tenses and voices given; underline the predicate:

1. Present active: Lehrer, aufstehen, jed- Morgen, früh, sehr.

____

2. Present perfect active: Du, dein- Mutter, Erlaubnis, müssen, bitten.

____

3. Future passive: Ich, er, nicht, können, Schule, begleiten.

____

4. Past perfect passive: Häuser, Krieg, aufbauen, wieder.

5. Future passive: Wollen, Inge, Abendessen, einladen.

6. Past perfect active: Wir, sie brauchen, fragen, nicht.

7. Simple past active: Direktor, Untersuchung, durchführen.

8. Future perfect passive: Fritz, Ilse, antreffen.

9. Simple past passive: Brief, Briefträger, bringen.

10. Present perfect passive: Sie, Geschenk, danken, sollen.

5.222 Position of the Subject

Rewrite the following main clauses as type 2 by positing the subject, the objects, the modifiers, or predicate constituents (the latter when possible) in the first slot:

1. Singen viele Männer beim Baden?

2. Im Herst sind die Farben der Bäume am schönsten.

3. Die Nächte werden schon im September immer kälter.

4. Hat ihn denn der Bote gestern nicht angetroffen?

5. Wegen ihrer Schmerzen muß sie gleich den Arzt anrufen.

5.223 Position of Objects

Construct main clauses from the vocabulary given, placing the objects in the inner slots. Rewrite the clauses and replace one, then both objects by pronouns, e.g.

Wir, Freund, Zeitung, bringen.:
Wir bringen dem Freund die Zeitung.
Wir bringen sie dem Freund.
Wir bringen ihm die Zeitung.
Wir bringen sie ihm.

1. Direktor, Ausländer, gestatten, Eintitt.

2. In, Straßenbahn, Herr, überlassen, Platz, Dame.

3. Erste Hilfe, bringen, Verunglückter, Feuerwehr.

4. Lehrer, Kollege, gute Neuigkeit, erzählen.

5. Mutter, Kinder, für, Unordnung, bestrafen.

5.224 Position of Modifiers

a. Construct main clauses in which the modifiers are in the inner slots in the following sequence: (1) modifier of time, (2) of cause/condition/purpose/contrast (3) of mood and (4) of place:

1. Kinder, in, Schule, mit, Freunde, gern, bei Sonnenschein, gehen

2. Wahrscheinlich, sie, heute, vergeblich, zu, ich, kommen.

____

3. Wegen, schlechte Augen, Kind, bekommt, gestern, Brille, von, Arzt.

____

4. Trotz, Gefahr, er, Versuch, ohne, Angst, in, Labor, jetzt, machen.

____

5. Bei, starker Verkehr, wir, fahren, täglich, zweimal, in, Stadt.

____

b. The accumulation of as many modifiers in the inner slots as in the clauses above is not particularly good style. How can it be be improved?

____

____

5.2241 Emphatic Positions

a. Move the underlined constituent into the first slot of the main clause for emphasis:

1. Er wird nicht mitgehen wollen, sondern zu Haus bleiben.

____

2. Unter diesen Umständen sollte man damit zufrieden sein.

____

3. Er hat mir meinen alten Tisch repariert.

____

4. Man sollte wirklich seinen Eltern dankbarer sein.

____

5. Sie hat das ganz ohne Hilfe erledigen können.

____

6. Man hat ihnen mit dem Gerichtsvollzieher gedroht.

____

7. Ich kann ihm das nicht verzeihen.

____

8. Nicht alle seine Erzählungen haben wir ihm geglaubt.

____

9. Sie war von dieser Nachricht erschüttert.

____

10. Wir wollen aber trotzdem einkaufen gehen.

____

b. Move the underlined constituents into the emphatic pre-terminal slot:

1. Dagegen hat er sich ausdrücklich gewehrt.
2. Das Leben erschien ihm an jenem Morgen besonders schön.
3. Das Publikum war von der Vorstellung begeistert.
4. Damals wollte er das mit Gewalt erzwingen.
5. Sie hat ihrer Tante einen neuen Schal versprochen.

5.2242 Position of Negation

Negate the whole clause instead of just one constituent:

1. Nicht absichtlich hat er ihr wehgetan.
2. Nein, das ist nicht seine Stimme.
3. Warum hast es nicht Frau Peters gegeben?
4. Man kann ihn um keinen Gefallen bitten.
5. Nicht ohne schwere Arbeit kann man ein Ziel erreichen.
6. Man sollte nicht in diesem Laden einkaufen.
7. Bitte ruf uns nicht nach neun Uhr an!
8. Hast du nicht ihm das Geld gesandt?
9. Man soll sich nicht zu sehr darüber aufregen.
10. Undurchführbar erscheint mir dieser Plan.

5.23 Coordination of Main Clauses
5.231 Coordinating Conjunctions

a. Connect the main clauses using the coordinating conjunctions indicated:

1. (und): Sie beklagte den Tod ihres Vaters. Sie weinte.

____

2. (nicht...sondern): Hans kommt jetzt. Hans kommt erst später.

____

3. (oder): Sollen wir anrufen? Sollen wir Inge schicken?

____

4. (denn): Ich bin böse. Der Brief ist verloren gegangen.

____

5. (aber): Es scheint unmöglich. Wir werden es versuchen.

____

6. (und): Wo ist dein Mantel? Wohin hast du die Schuhe gestellt?

____

7. (oder): Müssen Sie jetzt gehen? Können Sie noch bleiben?

____

8. (und): Er kam. Er sah. Er siegte.

____

9. (nicht...sondern): Das war meine Schuld, Es war seine Schuld.

____

10. (denn): Er muß sich beeilen. Er will den Zug erreichen.

____

b. In your sentences above, indicate those constituents which can be deleted by crossing them out. Note whether a comma precedes the abbreviated clauses.

5.232 Pronouns and Adverbs as Connectors

a. Determine the prepositional pronouns from the prepositional objects which are required by the valence of the predicate and write them in the spaces provided:

1. Wo ist meine Tasche: ich suche schon lange ____________?
2. Er gab ihr Geld; ____________ hatte sie ihn nicht gebeten.
3. Sie hatte es versprochen, man kann sich ____________ verlassen.
4. Peter arbeitet schwer; ____________ solltest du ihm helfen.
5. Ilse hat mir einen Brief geschrieben, ____________ muß ich danken.

6. Ihr Bericht hat ihn erschüttert; er muß ____________ dauernd denken.
7. Sie hatte Tuberkulose, ____________ ist sie auch gestorben.
8. Er fragte mich ____________, wo die Post ist.
9. Das Glas ist schmutzig, ich kann ____________ nicht trinken.
10. Er hatte einen Unfall, ____________ hat er uns nichts erzählt.

b. Form prepositional pronouns from the given prepositional phrases and connect the two main clauses:

1. (Wegen des Regens): Es ist zu naß. Ich bleibe zu Haus.

____

2. (Trotz seiner Angst): Er fürchtete sich. Er verteidigte sich.

____

3. (Statt des Geldes): Sie hatte kein Geld. Sie gab ihm Brot.

____

4. (Während des Unterrichts): Der Lehrer redet viel in der Klasse. Die Schüler schlafen. ______________________________

____

5. (Seit der Hochzeit): Sie hat geheiratet. Sie ist unglücklich.

____

c. Connect the main clauses by the given adverbs, by placing them into the first slot of the second main clause:

1. (doch): Er will nicht arbeiten. Er muß arbeiten.

____

2. (folglich): Der Vater hat es empfohlen. Du solltest es tun.

____

3. (allerdings): Er kommt später. Wir wußten das.

____

4. (also): Die Sache ist erledigt. Du brauchst dich darum nicht zu kümmern. ______________________________

____

5. (andererseits): Einerseits möchte sie viel Geld verdienen. Sie möchte Kinder haben. ______________________________

____

d. Rewrite the sentences from above in the spaces provided and place the adverb in the inner slot:

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________
4. ______________________________

5. ______________________________

5.3 Subordinate Clauses
5.31 Function of Subordinate Clauses

a. Identify the function of the following subordinate clauses: Does a clause (1) replace a noun phrase in the main clause or (2) abbreviate two main clauses by avoiding repetition? Write the main clause with the appropriate noun phrase or the two main clauses underlying the subordinate clause:

1. Er sprang aus dem Fenster, wodurch er sich retten konnte. ________

   ____

2. Da sie krank ist, geht sie nicht mit uns Theater. ________

   ____

3. Der Ausländer, nach dem die Polizei fragte, ist in seine Heimat zurückgekehrt. ________

   ____

   ____

4. Ich weiß wirklich nicht, wo dein Buch ist. ________

   ____

5. Ich telefoniere oft nach Berlin, wo meine Verwandten wohnen. ________

   ____

6. Sie haben nicht geschrieben, wann sie ankommen. ________

   ____

7. Wenn der Postbote kommt, bringt er sicher das Paket. ________

   ____

8. Sie hat eine starke Erkältung, durch die sie sehr leidet. ________

   ____

9. Wer das Verbrechen begangen hat, kann nicht festgestellt werden. ________

   ____

10. Schulzes, mit deren tätigem Beistand der Kranke gesundgepflegt wurde, sind wirklich gute Freunde. ________

    ____

    ____

b. Do English clauses function in the same manner?

   ____

5.32 Position of Constituents in Subordinate Clauses

a. Is Mark Twain's metaphor (see 5.21 b) of the two stakes between which German is "shoveled" applicable to subordinate clauses?

____

b. Mark Twain gave the following speech at the Vienna Press Club in 1897.

"(1) I am indeed the truest friend of the German language - and not only now, but from long since, before twenty years already. (2) And never have I the desire had the noble language to hurt; to the contrary, only wished she to improve - I would her only reform. (3) It is the dream of my life been...(4) I would only the language method - the luxurious, elaborate construction compress, the eternal parenthesis suppress, do away with, annihilate; the introduction of more than thirteen subjects in one sentence forbid; the verb so far to the front pull that one it without a telescope discover can. (5) With one word, my gentlemen, I would your beloved language simplify so that, my gentlemen, when you her for prayer need, One her yonder-up understands."

By what grammatical means does Twain achieve the funny effect?

1. What is "unEnglish" in sentence (1): ______________________

____

2. What German constructions are used in sentence (2)?

____

3. Are the pronouns transferred correctly from German to English in sentence (2)? ______________________

____

4. Translate sentence (3) into German. ______________________

____

5. What is the German finite verb in sentence (4)?

____

6. How many clauses would make up sentence (5) in German and what type of clauses would be used? ______________________

____

c. Write sentences which contain one main clause and one subordinate clause by inserting the conjunction and rearranging the word order:

1. (weil) Es stürmt und schneit. Wir bleiben gern zu Haus.

____

2. (damit) Zieh den Wintermantel an! Erkälte dich nicht!

____

3. (wenn) Freuen Sie sich? Der Frühling kommt endlich.

____

4. (obwohl) Er war sehr fleißig. Er bestand die Prüfung nicht.

____

5. (bevor) Es ist sehr windig. Ein Gewitter zieht jetzt auf.

____

6. (als) Sie studierte in Köln. Sie sah ihn zum letzten Mal.

____

7. (während) Die Mutter kocht das Essen, Vater liest den Brief.

____

8. (sobald) Er kam in Kiel an. Er ging sofort ins Hotel.

____

9. (daß) Wir wunderten uns darüber. Sie verspätete sich.

____

10. (da) Viele Kranke leben in Süden. Das Klima ist gesund.

____

5.33 Types of Subordinate Clauses
5.331 Relative Clauses

a. Write relative clauses:

1. Diesem Schüler habe ich das Buch empfohlen. Das ist der Schüler, ______________________________
2. (Die Leute erzählen es). Man darf nicht alles glauben,

____

3. (Wir haben uns mit ihnen unterhalten). Erinnerst du dich an die Französinnen, ______________________________?
4. (Er freute sich darüber). Wir zeigten dem Gast die Stadt.

____

5. (Er hat Frau Müllers ältester Tochter Geld geliehen.) Frau Müller, ______________________________, wird es ihm bestimmt zurückgeben.
6. (Meine Eltern wohnen in Berlin.) Ich fahre in den Ferien nach Berlin, ______________________________
7. (Die Dame hat ihn zum Kaffee eingeladen. Er hat ihren schweren Koffer getragen.) Die Dame, ______________________________ ______________________________, hat ihn zum Kaffee eingeladen.
8. (Peter ist mit ihr befreundet). Die junge Studentin, __________ ______________________________, hatte gestern Geburtstag.
9. (Ihre schlechten Arbeiten liegen hier.) Ich muß die Regel den Schülern erklären, ______________________________

____

10. (Ich habe den Brief noch nicht gelesen.) Wo ist der Brief,

____?

b. Write relative clauses:

1. Großmutter ist gestern achtzig geworden. Wir feierten ihren Geburtstag. ____
____

2. Der Polizist hat mir geholfen. Ich bin ihm dankbar.
____

3. Die Leute arbeiten in der Nähe. Ohne ihre sofortige Hilfe wäre der Unfall noch schlimmmer ausgegangen.
____
____

4. Der spanische Student ist in seine Heimat zurückgekehrt. Das bedauern wir sehr. ____
____

5. Eva hat geheiratet. Hans war lange mit ihr verlobt.
____

6. Diese Kirche ist aus dem dreizehnten Jahrhundert. Ihr Baustil ist gotisch. ____
____

7. Wir nennen die Strahlen Röntgenstrahlen; Röntgen hat sie entdeckt. ____
____

8. Jemand arbeitet zu viel. Jemand muß auf seine Gesundheit achten.
____

9. Wo ist Hans hingegangen? Sein altes Auto steht noch hier.
____

10. Ihre kleine Tochter war lange krank. Sie haben sich um sie große Sorgen gemacht. ____
____

5.332 daß-Clauses

a. Write daß-clauses and indicate in the margin whether they function as (1) the subject, (2) an accusative object or (3) a prepositional phrase:

1. Es war dumm von ihm. Er hat den Vertrag unterschreiben. ______
____

2. Wir wußten nichts davon. Sie waren schwer verunglückt. ______
____

3. Das ist richtig. Er muß für seine böse Tat büßen. ______
____

4. Er habe sie nicht kommen hören. Er behauptete es. ______

____

5. Sie arbeitete sorgfältig. Die Schülerin zeichnete sich dadurch aus. ______

____

6. Besonders angenehm ist es mir. Ihr kommt zeitig. ______

____

7. Mutter hat es empfohlen. Wir sollen feste Schuhe anziehen. ______

____

8. Er prahlte damit. Er hat sich sechs Anzüge machen lassen. ______

____

9. Sie wurde als Schauspielerin berühmt. Wie ist es möglich? ______

____

10. Er soll von der Polizei wegen Diebstahls gesucht werden. Das flüsterte man. ______

____

b. Translate the following sentences into German and mark in the margin whether 'that' equals (1) the subordinating conjunction daß, (2) the relative pronoun-conjunction das, (3) the determiner of a noun or (4) the determiner as pronoun:

1. That was unnecessary that you questioned that. ____ ____ ____

____

2. It is most embarrassing that that book got lost. ____ ____

____

3. I knew that he had asked the girl to do that. ____ ____ ____

____

4. That I go along and do that was his order. ____ ____

____

5. The fairy tale that she read to the children was that one which she had loved as a child too. ____ ____ ____

____

____

6. Did you know that that house that you now live in once had belonged to us? ____ ____ ____ ____

____

____

7. That you accomplished that, (that) pleases me. ____ ____ ____

____

8. Without that book that he borrowed I cannot find that quote. ____ ____ ____

____

9. That is really shame that that water froze on that cold night and later flooded the ground floor. ____ ____ ____ ____

____

____

10. That is the custom here that that girl who cleans the house for us is invited for Christmas. ____ ____ ____ ____ ____

____

____

5.3321 Infinitive Constructions

a. Rewrite the subordinate clauses as infinitive constructions:

1. Er hat sich eingebildet, daß er uns damit einen Gefallen getan hätte.

____

____

2. Du hast versprochen, daß du dich um die Angelegenheit kümmerst.

____

3. Er forderte mich auf, daß ich meine Ergebnisse veröffentliche.

____

4. Man gab den Soldaten den Befehl, daß sie vormarschieren.

____

5. Er deutete an, daß er belastendes Material besitze.

____

6. Er hat uns abgeraten, daß wir die Konferenz besuchen.

____

7. Die Mutter erlaubt den Kindern nicht, daß sie in die Stadt gehen.

____

8. Das Unglück zwang ihn, daß er seinen Besitz verkaufte.

____

9. Das ärgert mich sehr, daß ich ihn nicht gefragt habe.

____

10. Wann rechnen Sie damit, daß sie die Arbeit beenden?

____

b. Replace the noun phrases with infinitive constructions:

1. Seine Rettung war unmöglich.

____

2. Sie vergaß das Schreiben des Briefes an die Schwester.

____

3. Er muß sich an regelmäßige Arbeit gewöhnen.

____

4. Der Pilot fürchtete die Landung auf dem Eis.

____

5. Er forderte den Mieter zur pünktlichen Zahlung der Miete auf.

____

6. Die Wiederaufnahme der Verhandlungen war unmöglich.

____

7. Der Vater warnt den Sohn vor der Verschwendung seines Geldes.

____

8. Den Kauf eines guten Wörterbuchs empfahl der Lehrer dem Fremden.

____

9. Wir beabsichtigen eine Neubedachung unseres Hauses im Sommer.

____

10. Ich bitte dich um einen baldigen Anruf.

____

5.333 Interrogative Clauses

Construct interrogative clauses, e.g.:

Wird er heute anrufen? Es ist unbekannt.
Es ist unbekannt, ob er heute anrufen wird.

1. Ich weiß es nicht. Hat er den Brief geschrieben?

____

2. Wie heißt sie? Wo wohnt sie? Sie hat es nicht gesagt.

____

3. Sie streiten sich darum. Wer geht heute einkaufen?

____

4. Die Verkäuferin fragte den Kunden. Womit kann ich Ihnen dienen?

____

5. Das riemand vorhersagen. Wird es einen harten Winter geben?

____

6. Wie hat er den Bären erjagt? Er beschrieb es.

____

7. Warum ist es dir nicht bekannt? Wie ist das Kunstwerk entstanden?

8. Bei welcher Gelegenheit hat er sie getroffen. Er sagt es nicht.

9. Wie bildet man Nebensätze? Wir sprechen jetzt darüber.

10. Hast du es nicht gehört? Wie lange hat er gestern gearbeitet?

5.334 Modifier Clauses
5.3341 Clauses of Place

Construct clauses of place:

1. Neulich habe ich Frau Meier getroffen. Als Studentin wohnte ich bei ihr.

2. Irgendwo singt man. Da laβ dich ruhig nieder, denn böse Menschen haben keine Lieder.

3. Gehst du ins Theater? "Faust" wird dort aufgeführt.

4. Die Straβe ist frisch geteert. Man soll nicht darauf fahren.

5. Du gehst irgendwohin. Dahin will ich auch gehen.

6. Ich freue mich auf die Reise nach Afrika. Vor zehn Jahren war ich schon einmal dort.

7. Das Zimmer war sehr überheizt. Er trat ein.

8. Er ist bei der Post. Ich habe ihn zur Post begleitet.

9. Das ist eine berühmte Kirche. Daneben hat mein Onkel gewohnt.

10. Wir rannten in den Hörsaal. Der Professor war gerade hineingegangen.

5.3342 Clauses of Time

a. Complete the clauses by filling in the appropriate temporal conjunction: als, bevor, bis, ehe, nachdem, seitdem, sobald, solange, während or wenn:

1. Wir haben nichts mehr von ihm gehört, ____________ er ausgewandert ist.
2. ____________ du das Essen bereitest, gehe ich schnell eine Flasche Wein holen.
3. ____________ ich an die Reihe kam, waren die Karten ausverkauft.
4. Man sagt mir, er sei in einer Besprechung, ____________ ich bei ihm anrufe.
5. Ich hatte schon viel von ihm gehört, ____________ ich ihn kennenlernte.
6. ____________ ich an meine Steuern denke, wird mir schlecht.
7. Er begab sich sofort zum Krankenhaus, ____________ er in Hamburg angekommen war.
8. ____________ man zu alt ist, sollte man sein Testament machen.
9. Ich werde warten, ____________ du nach Hause kommst.
10. ____________ sie anrufen, werden wir sofort aufbrechen.
11. Er ist verreist. ____________ er nicht hier ist, können wir keine Entscheidungen treffen.
12. ____________ sie aus dem Krankenhaus entlassen worden war, reiste sie Kur nach Wiesbaden.
13. ____________ meine Kinder klein waren, gingen wir oft in den Zoo.
14. Sie winkte, ____________ sie ihn nicht mehr sehen konnte.
15. ____________ die Verhandlungen begannen, lernten sich die Parteien kennen.

b. Replace the prepositional modifiers with clauses of time:

1. Bei Ausbruch des Krieges waren wir gerade in Afrika.

   ____

2. Seit seinem Tod ist das Haus unbewohnt.

   ____

3. Die Konferenz wurde nach tagelangen erfolglosen Beratungen abgebrochen.

   ____

   ____

4. Während unseres Urlaubs ist in unser Haus eingebrochen worden.

   ____

5. Zu seinen Lebzeiten ging es seiner Familie viel besser.

   ____

6. Bitte stehen Sie bei dem Eintritt des Redners auf!

____

7. Wo haben Sie als Kind gewohnt?

____

8. Nach dem Bekanntwerden der Verhandlungsergebnisse atmeten alle erleichtert auf.

____

____

9. Sofort nach der Klärung dieser Fragen hören Sie von uns.

____

10. Bei jedem Wiedersehen weint sie vor Freude.

____

c. Complete the clauses using als, wen, wenn or wann:

1. __________ die Konferenz beginnt, hat er nicht gesagt.
2. __________ du ihm die Wahrheit sagst, wird er wissen, __________ er rechtmäßig bestrafen sollte.
3. __________ wir feststellten, __________ er in Paris gewesen war, wußten wir auch, __________ er dort besucht hatte.
4. __________ du nicht anrufst, kann ich dir auch nicht mitteilen, __________ wir uns treffen können.
5. __________ er am Bahnhof ankam, hatte er keine Ahnung, __________ er dort treffen sollte und __________ er weiterfahren konnte.

d. Fill in the correct conjunctions, nachdem or bevor, or the prepositional pronouns danach or davor.

1. Bitte kommt zu Tisch! __________ wascht euch aber die Hände!
2. __________ er zu Besuch kam, kaufte er Blumen.
3. __________ es geschneit hatte, waren die Straßen glatt und man konnte __________ viele Autounfälle beobachten.
4. __________ erzählte er mir, was er plante, __________ er sein Studium beendet hätte und __________ er seinen Posten antreten werde.
5. Wir hatten ein herrliches Steak, __________ gab es Suppe, __________ Eis mit Schlagsahne. __________ wir alles gegessen hatten, konnten wir uns kaum bewegen.

5.3343 Clauses of Cause

a. Complete the clauses by filling in the subordinating conjunctions da or weil, the coordinating conjunction denn, or the adverbs/pronouns deshalb, darum, deswegen, daher, folglich or also:

1. Er hat seinen Bus verpaßt, __________ ist er unpünktlich.
2. __________ er keine Eltern hatte, wuchs er im Waisenhaus auf.
3. Bitte beeil dich, __________ es ist schon spät.
4. Sie bestand das Abitur, sie konnte __________ die Universität besuchen.
5. Ich fand seine Adresse nicht, __________ konnte ich ihm nicht schreiben.
6. Er geht wenig aus; ich fand es __________ ungewöhnlich, ihn im Theater zu sehen.
7. Heute möchte ich nicht in die Stadt fahren, __________ es hat geschneit.
8. __________ er arbeitet, hat er wenig Zeit.
9. Du bist noch zu jung, __________ solltest du nicht in eine Bar gehen.
10. Gutenberg hat die Buchdruckerkunst erfunden, er ist __________ berühmt.

b. Complete the clauses with the conjunction or the adverb da, or with the conjunction or adverb denn, or the adverb dann:

1. Wenn du mitkommst, __________ gehe ich auch.
2. Was haben Sie __________ dort getan?
3. Er studiert Medizin, __________ er __________ die Praxis seines Vaters übernehmen will.
4. Ich habe ihn nicht __________ gesehen.
5. Warum hast du sie __________ nicht darum gebeten?
6. Erst rief sie uns an, __________ stand er vor der Tür.
7. __________ es so kalt ist, sollten wir ein Feuer machen.
8. Sie stellt immer dumme Fragen, __________ sie ist nicht sehr intelligent.
9. Wirst du __________ __________ wohl fertig sein?
10. __________ sind Sie endlich! Das freut mich, __________ ich habe mir schon Sorgen gemacht, ob wir __________ noch das Taxi __________ erwischen können.

5.3344 Clauses of Purpose

a. Construct clauses introduced by damit. Where possible, rewrite the clause as an infinitive construction with um...zu:

1. Man spielt in der Lotterie. (Geld gewinnen).

2. Hans versteckt sich. (Man, nicht, sehen, ihn; active/passive)

3. Man fährt in die Berge. (Ski laufen).

4. Er hat ein Opernglas. (Schauspieler beobachten; act./pass.)

5. Ich gehe ins Kaufhaus. (Vater, Geschenk, kaufen).

6. (Besser, sehen.) Viele Menschen tragen Brillen.

7. Alle sind still. (Kranker, können, schlafen.)

8. (Verunglückter, retten; act./pass.) Der Arzt tat alles.

9. Sie gießt die Blumen täglich. (Blumen, gedeihen.)

10. Bitte decke den Tisch! (Wir, essen, bald, können; act./pass.)

b. Replace the prepositional modifier with a clause with damit or an infinitive with um...zu:

1. Zur Vergrößerung des Wohlstandes arbeiten wir viel.

2. Er begab sich zur Heilung seiner Krankheit in ein Sanatorium.

3. Zur Heizung eines großen Hauses braucht man gute Öfen.

4. Wir müssen den Import zur Stabilisierung der Währung erhöhen.

5. Mehr Polizisten wurden zur Förderung der Sicherheit eingestellt.

6. Wir bezahlen Sozialversicherung zur Versorgung unseres Alteres.

7. Zur Verbesserung seiner Sprachkenntnisse machte er Reisen.

8. Die Regierung ließ Sümpfe zur Landgewinnung austrocknen.

9. Man legt einen Park zur Verschönerung der Stadt an.

10. Zur Verteidigung des Landes hat man Armeen.

5.3345 Clauses of Contrast

a. Rewrite the prepositional modifiers as subordinate clauses introduced by the subordinating conjunctions obwohl, obgleich or trotzdem:

1. Trotz des Verbotes spielten die Kinder mit Streichhölzern.

2. Der Schüler versteht den Lehrer trotz seiner Aufmerksamkeit nicht.

3. Trotz des hellen Sonnenscheins war es sehr kalt.

4. Er besuchte die Vorlesungen trotz seiner Krankheit.

5. Trotz seiner Armut war er immer fröhlich und zufrieden.

6. Er bekam trotz seines Fleißes immer schlechte Zensuren.

7. Er kaufte das Buch trotz des viel zu hohen Preises.

8. Trotz meiner sorgfältigen Pflege ist meine Blume gestorben.

9. Trotz der eisigen Straβen fuhr er schnell.

10. Trotz seines Versprechens half er den Freunden nicht.

b. Rewrite the clauses by inserting the adverbs dennoch or aber or the pronoun trotzdem into one of the inner slots:

1. Obgleich du gelogen hast, will ich dir verzeihen.

2. Er grüβte mich nicht, obwohl er mich kannte.

3. Der Fahrer war schwer verletzt. Der Arzt gab nicht auf.

4. Trotzdem er reich war, war er nicht glücklich.

5. Ihre Freunde verlieβen sie; sie verlor den Mut nicht.

5.3346 Clauses of Condition

a. Construct clauses of condition in the indicative mood with and without wenn:

1. Er ist arm. Er kann nicht verreisen.

2. Ich brauche keinen Arzt. Ich bin gesund.

3. Sie hat Hunger. Sie iβt.

4. Man braucht warme Kleidung. Es ist kalt.

5. Alle Leute mögen einen. Man ist freundlich.

b. Translate the following sentences into German, using real and unreal conditions as well as unreal wishes where appropriate:

1. If someone offered him more money, he would sell his house.

2. I wouldn't ask if I knew it.

3. If only he had the courage to tell the truth!

4. If you are sick, you should see a doctor.

5. What would you do if he suddenly came?

6. If only they would help us!

7. If one is economical, one gets richer.

8. If she didn't have a television, her work would improve.

9. If you only knew how unhappy he is!

10. We cannot eat if we do not make some money.

5.3347 Clauses of Comparison

a. Construct clauses of comparison by using the given conjunctions:

1. (je...desto): Die Glocken sind näher. Sie klingen lauter.

2. (so...wie): Die Eltern leben. Die Kinder leben.

3. (...als): Er kam schneller zurück. Man erwartete es.

4. (je...umso): Die Arbeit ist schwerer, die Befriedigung größer.

5. (so...wie): Die Saat ist gut. Die Ernte ist gut.

6. (...als): Seine Fortschritte übersteigen alle Erwartungen.

7. (je...desto): Größere Hitze verursacht größeren Durst.

8. (so...wie): Die Antwort richtet sich nach der Frage.

9. (je...umso): Die älteren Menschen sind die vernünftigeren.

10. (...als): Seine Kenntnisse sind größer. Wir glaubten es.

b. Translate the following sentences into German, using the appropriate conjunctions of comparison:

1. The more one looks at a picture, the more details one sees.

___

2. We have as much snow this year as they have in Siberia.

___

3. The trip was cheaper than I had expected.

___

4. The more his freedom is restricted, the more rebellious he gets.

___

5. The higher the speed, the worse the accidents become.

___

c. To review various types of clauses, write the given conjunctions and adverbs/pronouns into the appropriate sentences and indicate what type of clause results:

obwohl, wenn, wodurch, wie, nachdem, dennoch, da

1. ___ man zu viel ißt, wird man dick. ___
2. Er besuchte uns, ___ er die Arbeit fertig hatte. ___
3. ___ wir es erfahren hatten, wollte sie wissen. ___
4. Wir gingen zur Post; ___ kauften wir Briefmarken. ___
5. ___ mich belogen hast, glaube ich dir nichts. ___
6. Sie benahmen sich so schlecht, ___ wir gefürchtet hatten. ___
7. Ihr Kleid war schmutzig, ___ zog sie es an. ___
8. ___ er alt ist, benimmt er sich wie ein Junger. ___
9. Es ist unbekannt, ___ sie verletzt wurde. ___
10. ___ sie aufwacht, bringt er ihr immer Kaffee. ___

d. Fill in the following conjunctions or adverbs and pronouns and identify the type of clause:

als, denn, deren, was, damit, trotzdem

1. Sie rief an, ___ gerade das Haus verließ. ___
2. Der Bleistift ist stumpf, ___ kann ich nicht schreiben. ___
3. Kennen Sie Else, ___ Mutter bei uns arbeitet? ___

4. Wo bleibst du __________, wir warten schon lange! __________
5. __________ nutzlos ist, soll man nicht erstreben. __________
6. Sie schreibt ihm eine Liste, __________ er nichts vergißt. __________
7. Es stürmt und hagelt, __________ geht er einkaufen. __________
8. Sie kann nie entscheiden, __________ sie anziehen soll. __________
9. __________ er krank ist, sieht er gut aus. __________
10. Sie sind traurig, __________ sie haben schlechte Nachrichten erhalten. __________

e. Translate the following sentences into English and indicate what type of subordinate clause is introduced by the subordinating conjunction:

1. Wir haben das neue Drama gesehen, das er letztes Jahr geschrieben hat. __________

   ____

2. Sie haben gehört, daß die Polizei ihn verhaftet hat. __________

   ____

3. Er sagte etwas, was ich nicht verstand. __________

   ____

4. Er fragte sie, was sie in den Ferien gemacht hat. __________

   ____

5. Was er sagte, habe ich nicht verstanden. __________

   ____

6. Kennst du das Land, wo die Zitronen blühen? __________

   ____

7. Wo gehobelt wird, da fallen auch Späne. ______/______

   ____

8. Wer andren eine Grube gräbt, fällt selbst hinein. __________

   ____

9. Wer das war, wußte sie nicht. __________

   ____

10. Wenn du das vergißt, werde ich böse. __________

    ____

11. Wir freuten uns sehr, als wir seinen Brief bekamen. __________

    ____

12. Wir freuten uns mehr, als wir beschreiben können. __________

    ____

13. Wie man in den Wald ruft, so schallt es heraus. ________

____

14. Wie man die Maschine benutzt, mußten wir ihm erklären. ________

____

15. Wie sehr er sich auch bemühte, schaffte er es doch nicht. ________

____

5.4 Complex Sentences
5.41 Position of Clauses in Sentences

a. To facilitate the translation of complex sentences, some useful hints can be given to students. Below are some such hints in arbitrary order. Bring them into the sequence which is most practical:

1. find the complements of the finite verb in the main clause ________
2. find the finite verb of a subordinate clause, translate it and posit it after the English subject ________
3. find the main clause ________
4. find the subject of the main clause ________
5. transform one of several subordinate clauses into a main clause ________
6. find the finite verb of the main clause ________
7. translate the predicate of the main clause and posit it behind the English subject ________
8. after translating the main clause, find possible relative clauses and translate them ________
9. translate the subject of the main clause ________
10. beginning with the main clause, sequence the subordinate clauses (except relative clauses) ________

b. Translate the following complex sentences into English and mark the main clause with MC and circle all predicates:

1. Es wird mir immer unverständlich bleiben, warum er sich entschlossen hat, nach Afrika auszuwandern, nachdem er sich hier eine so gute Existenz aufgebaut hatte, die nun sein nutzloser Sohn zerstören wird.

____

____

____

____

2. Hätte er die Firma, deren Produkte welktbekannt sind und die sein Groβvater gegründet hat, besser verwaltet, so könnte er sich jetzt, nachdem seine Söhne andere Berufe gewählt haben, auf seinen tüchtigen Enkel verlassen und ihn in die Betriebsführung einweisen, wodurch er einen Nachfolger für das Familienunternehmen gewänne, der die Firma vielleicht noch retten könnte.

3. Warum hat denn die Zeitung, die doch sonst alles Wichtige berichtet, die gestrigen Vorfälle bei der Demonstration der Studenten, die gegen weitere Bewaffnung protestierten, nicht erwähnt, sondern sich nur auf internationale Nachrichten beschränkt, deren Einwirkungen auf unsere Stadt wirklich geringer sind als die hiesigen Ereignisse?

5.411 Initial Clauses

Rewrite the following sentences and, if possible, posit the second and third clause in the beginning:

1. Du hast mir doch versprochen, mich zu besuchen, wenn du Zeit hast.

2. Weshalb er aber schon abgefahren ist, ohne sich zu verabschieden, hat sie mir nicht gesagt.

3. Es scheint, als wenn er sich besser, als man erwartet hatte, bewährt, und deshalb sollte man ihm mehr Verantwortung geben.

5.412 Embedded Clauses

a. Form clauses and embed at least two of them:

1. Die Frage danach ist häufig gestellt worden. Wie kann man leben? (wenn) Alles wird teurer.

2. Es ist dem Lehrer unverständlich. Der Lehrer ist gewissenhaft. Die Schüler lernen nichts. Die Schüler sind intelligent.

3. Ihre Aussage klang verlogen. Sie ist nicht dabeigewesen. (als) Der Diebstahl fand statt. Bei dem Diebstahl wurde die Bank ausgeraubt.

4. Wann treffen wir uns? Sie wollte es wissen. Wir kaufen Geschenke ein. Die Kinder freuen sich auf die Geschenke.

5. Herr Schulze ist Ingenieur. Ich habe Herrn Schulze kennengelernt. (als) Ich arbeitete bei Firma Möller. Er hat die Firma gegründet.

b. Translate the following English sentences into German and use as many embedded clauses as possible:

1. It is not yet known today, June fifth, whether the experiment which Dr. Schmitt begins today and which is scheduled to be complete by July ninth, will be as successful as the previous experiment through which he gained world fame.

2. When his mother, who works at the new library, came home after doing her shopping on the way, she was annoyed to find her house, which she had quickly cleaned in the morning, turned into complete disorder by him and the friends who he had invited.

3. The question about where and when the new dam, which is widely discussed by all groups concerned with ecology, is to be built, can only be answered by the new government after the elections have taken place.

____

____

____

____

5.413 Abbreviated Clauses

a. Rewrite the following abbreviated clauses as full clauses and indicate what constituents were missing:

1. Er hat ebenso schwer wie wir darum kämpfen müssen. ________

____

2. Sie wollen weder besucht noch angerufen werden. ________

____

3. Werden Sie mit dem Zug oder mit dem Auto fahren? ________

____

4. Das Kind schlug um sich, schrie und tobte wild. ________

____

5. Das hat weder beschrieben noch besprochen werden können.

____

____

b. To review the variety of constructions which are semantically equivalent, rewrite the following clause in all possible syntactic patterns:

Wir helfen ihr bei den Hausaufgaben.

1. copula + predicate adjective derived from the verb (3.315):

____

2. possessive determiner in noun phrase (4.132):

____

3. noun phrase with prepositional modifier (4.423):

____

4. two main clauses, add machen (5.21):

____

5. two coordinating main clauses, causal connector (5.231):

____

6. main clause and causal modifier clause (5.3343):

____

7. main clause and clause of purpose, add positive adverb (5.3344)

____

8. passive voice in clause of purpose (3.18):

9. main clause and infinitive construction (5.3321):

10. accusative-with-infinitive construction (3.312):

11. perfect tense (3.171);

12. relative clause, dissolving compound noun (5.331):

13. passive voice of relative clause (3.18):

14. sein+zu+infinitive (3.2411):

15. haben+zu+infinitive (3.2411):

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KEY

CHAPTER ONE

1. ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF GERMAN

1.1 a. Teaching unit should contain (1) cognates which are identical (bring-bringen, finger-Finger); (2) cognates with small differences (hear-hören, father-Vater); (3) foreign words in both languages (November, Musik); (4) German loan words in English (Kindergarten, Spiel).

b. A valid assignment, because students are generally not aware of the linguistic developments of either language. The close relationship of German to English will make German appear easier to learn. Some knowledge of political and cultural history will provide depth to the language study.

1.2 a. 1.=15; 2.=7; 3.=6; 4.=8; 5.=5; 6.=4; 7=3; 8.=1; 9.=2. 10.=10; 11.=11; 12=13; 13.=12; 14.=9 15.=15.

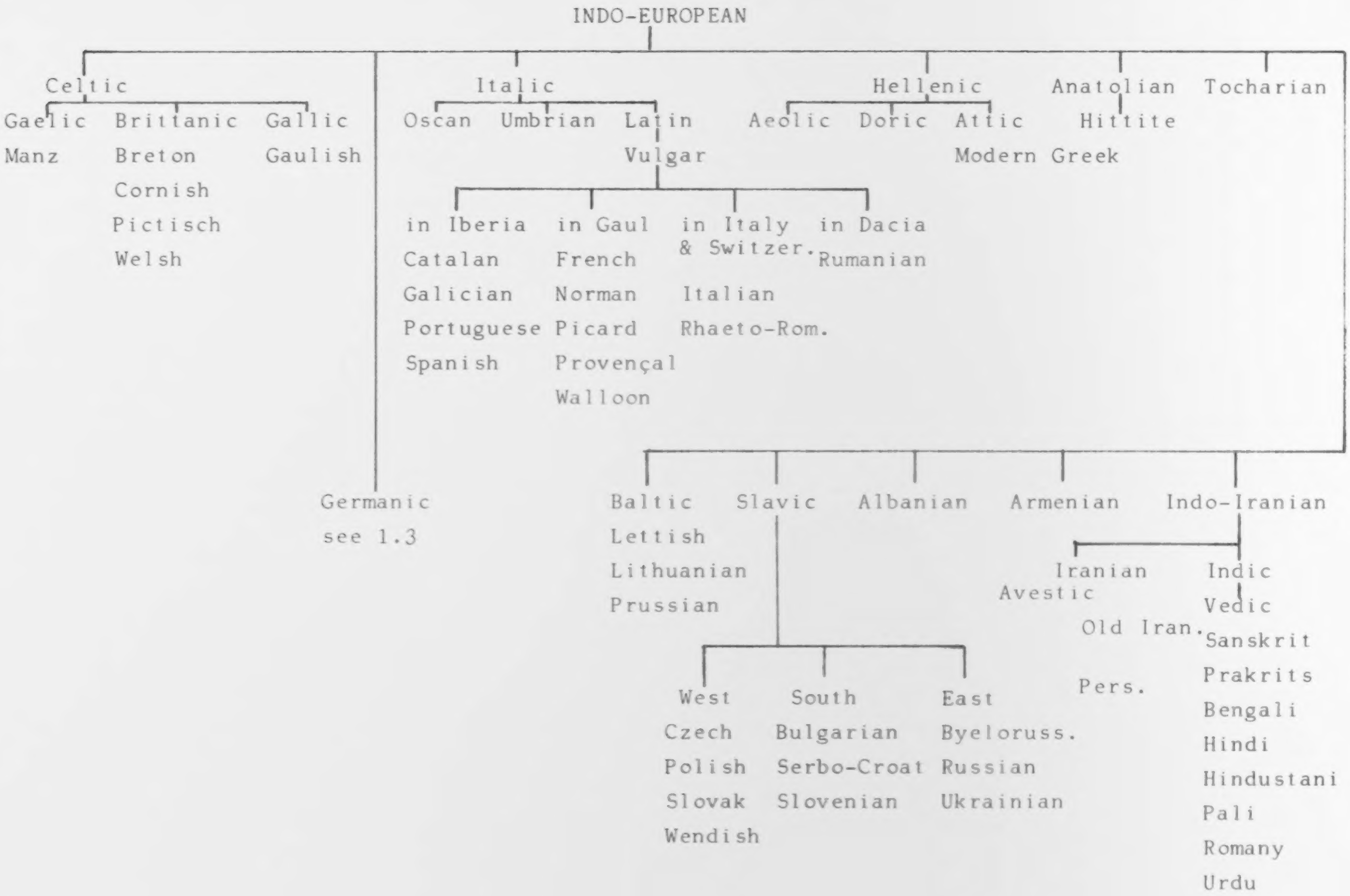
b.

OE	fæder	mōdor	sweosor	sunu
NHG	Vater	Mutter	Schwester	Sohn
ON	faðir	móðir	systir	sunr
GOT	fadar		swistar	sunus
LAT	pater	māter	soror	
GK	patēr	mētēr		huios
RUS		mat'	sestra	syn
LIT		mote	sesuo	sunus
Ir	athir	mathir	siur	
SKT	pitar	matar-	svasar-	sunu-
IE	*pəter-	*māter-	*swesor-	*sunu-

OE	dohtor	widuwe	ēast	full
NHG	Tochter	Witwe	Osten	voll
ON	dóttir		austr	fullr
GOT	dauhtar	widuwo		fulls
LAT		vidua	aurōra	plenus
GK	tygater		ēōs	pleres
RUS	doc'	vdova		polnyi
LIT	dukte	widdewu	aušra	pilnas
IR		febd		lan
SKT	duhitar-	vidhava-	usas-	purna-
IE	*dhughətēr-	*widhēwo-	*aus(t)-	*pləno-

OE	hund	tōþ	Tīw	morðor
NHG	Hund	Zahn	Zio	Mord
ON	hundr	tönn	Týr	morðr
GOT	hunds	tunþus		maurþr
LAT	canis	dens	Iūppiter	mors
GK	kuōn	odontos	Zeus	mortos
RUS	şuka			mjortvyi
LIT	šuns	dantis	dievas	mirtis
IR	cū	det	dia	marb
SKT	çvan-	dant-	dyaus-pitar	martaš
IE	*kw(o)n-/ kan-i-	*dent-/ (o)dont-	*deiwos/ dyeu-	*m(e)ret(r)-

c. See next page.


INDO-EUROPEAN
Celtic
Gaelic
Manz
Brittanic
Breton
Cornish
Pictisch
Welsh
Gallic
Gaulish
Italic
Oscan
Umbrian
Latin
Vulgar
in Iberia
Catalan
Galician
Portuguese
Spanish
in Gaul
French
Norman
Picard
Provençal
Walloon
in Italy & Switzer.
Italian
Rhaeto-Rom.
in Dacia
Rumanian
Hellenic
Aeolic
Doric
Attic
Modern Greek
Anatolian
Hittite
Tocharian
Germanic
see 1.3
Baltic
Lettish
Lithuanian
Prussian
Slavic
West
Czech
Polish
Slovak
Wendish
South
Bulgarian
Serbo-Croat
Slovenian
East
Byeloruss.
Russian
Ukrainian
Albanian
Armenian
Indo-Iranian
Iranian
Avestic
Old Iran.
Pers.
Indic
Vedic
Sanskrit
Prakrits
Bengali
Hindi
Hindustani
Pali
Romany
Urdu

581

582

1.3 a. 1. Burgundians; 2. Angels; 3. Saxons; 4. Franks; 5. Normans; 6. Vandals; 7. Langobords; 8. Wends.

b. See next page.

1.31 a. AAA, Alcoholics Anonymous, Big Brothers, Red Raider, Stainless Steel

b. Bausch und Bogen, Dichter und Denker, durch dick und dünn, Feuer und Flamme, Geld und Gut, Haut und Haar, Kind und Kegel (= illegitimate child, bastard), ohne Rast und Ruh, Schutz und Schirm, vor Tau und Tag, in Worten und Werken. 'black and blue, criss-cross, cool as a cucumber, heaven and hell, heart and hand, home and hearth, man and mouse, the more the merrier, rough and ready, stockstill.'

1.32 a. 1. ban; 2. dew; 3. goose; 4. pen; 5. do; 6. cool; 7. few; 8. through; 9 hen; 10. anger; 11. bear; 12. home; 13. food; 14. sweet; 15. clue; 16. drone; 17. lap; 18. foul; 19 wed; 20. weep; 21. flow; 22. eke; 23. hell, 24. lip; 25. timber; 26. bloom; 27. do; 28. thumb; 29. thank; 30. feather; 31. threat; 32. break; 33. bite; 34. drag; 35. crab, 36. fearh; 37. wharf; 38. gripe; 39 magan; 40. weg.

b. 1. haubiþ; 2. flood; 3. hang, 4. were; 5. sibun; 6. hlūd; 7. togian; 8. sear.

c. Reihe; 2. Ohr; 3. Knoten; 4. Frost; 5. Kurfürst; 6. Verlust; 7. gediegen; 8. schneiden; 9. Zug; 10. gewesen; 11. dürfen; 12. genesen.

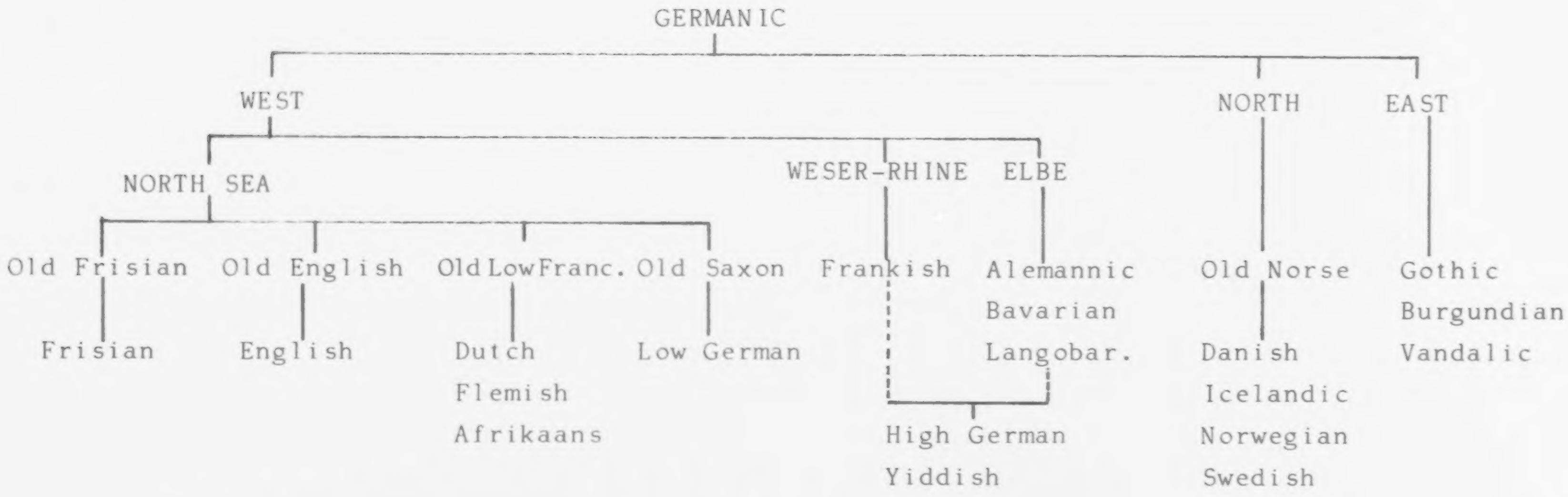
1.33 a. 1. Mund; 2. sanft, 3. Zahn, 4. Dunst, 5. Sund; 6. kund.

b. IIIa. trinken-trank-getrunken, singen-sang-gesungen, schwingen-schwang-geschwungen, gelingen-gelang-gelungen. IIIb. stehlen-stahl-gestohlen, bergen-barg-geborgen, werfen-warf-geworfen, empfehlen-empfahl-empfohlen.

1.34 1.=(1)/(3); 2.= (2); 3.=(1)/(3); 4.=(1); 5.=(2).

1.35 a. 1. A(da)lbert; 2. Arnold; 3. Balduin; 4. Bert(h)old, Bertram; 5. Hildebrand; 6. Friedrich, Siegfried, Friedhelm; 7. Gerlinde, Gertrud, Gerald; 8. Gu(n)drun, Hildegund; 9. Eberhart, Hartmut; 10. Hedwig, 11. Wilhelm, Friedhelm, 12. Herbert, Hermann; 13. Hildegard; 14. Dietlinde, Gerlinde; 15. Waldemar, Siegmar; 16. Richard, Friedrich; 17. Gudrun, Siegrun; 18. Hedwig, Wi(e)gant; 19. Wilhelm, Wilfried; 20. Edwin, Winfried.

b. 1. Sonntag 'day of the sun,' Lat. dies solis; Montag 'day of the moon,' dies lunae; Dienstag 'day of the god Tiu/Zio/Tingus,' dies martii for the god Mars; Donnerstag 'day of the god Donar/Thor,' Freitag 'day of the goddess of love and fertility, Freia, wife of Wotan/Wodan/Odin,' dies veneris for Venus; Samstag from Greek, Sonnabend 'eve of Sunday,' English 'Saturday' from Roman feast saturnalia (Saturn).
2. When Germany was Christianized, the missionaries noticed that Wodanesdag 'Wednesday' was named for a Germanic and pagan god (Wotan/Wodan/Odin) and renamed it Mittoch 'middle of the week.' Latin dies iovis (Jupiter).
3. Samstag in southern Germany.


GERMANIC
WEST
NORTH
EAST
NORTH SEA
WESER-RHINE
ELBE
Old Frisian
Old English
Old Low Franc.
Old Saxon
Frankish
Alemannic
Bavarian
Langobar.
Old Norse
Gothic
Burgundian
Vandalic
Frisian
English
Dutch
Flemish
Afrikaans
Low German
High German
Yiddish
Danish
Icelandic
Norwegian
Swedish

1.4 Alem.=(5)/(6); Bav.=(5)/(6); East Franc.=(3)/(4); Franc.=(3)/(4); Moselle=(3)/(4); Low=(1)/(2); Rhen.=(3)/(4); Ripuar.=(3)/(4).

1.41 a. 1. 'noble king'; 2. 'realm of the earth'; 3. 'faith of friends'; 4. 'guardian of peace'; 5. 'necklace'; 6. 'head-wound'; 7. 'place of buying'; 8. 'evil deed'; 9. 'speech of contempt'; 10. 'truthful speech.'
b. NHG Erdreich, Freundestreue, Halsband, Kaufstätte, Schmähred; NE 'headwound.'
c. NHG all. NE 'earth, head, cheap, harm, sooth(e).'
d. NHG all. NE 'king, wound, work, spell.'
e. German has maintained a greater capacity for compounding.
f. German.

1.42 a. Immense difficulty, because the Latin alphabet does not represent all phonemes of German or English completely, lacking symbols for phonemes that do not occur in Latin (e.g., þ, ü, etc.)
b. It is assumed that German word order was influenced by Latin; particularly the position of the finite verb in subordinate clauses at the end.

1.421 a. 1. besser, 2. beißen, 3. beide, 4. Brot, 5. Bruder, 6. tot, 7. Tat, 8. Tür, 9. Traum, 10. Fuß, 11. greifen, 12. Herz, 13. Herd, 14. lasse, 15. Pfanne, 16. Pfeffer, 17. Pfennig, 18. Pflanze, 19. Pflug, 20. Pfahl, 21. schießen, 22. zahm, 23. Dank, 24. die, 25. du, 26. Daumen, 27. Zeit, 28. zu, 29. Zeichen, 30. Waffen.
b. 1. beard, 2. bid, 3. book, 4. thistle, 5. throng, 6. feather, 7. flood, 8. hate, 9. hope, 10. cook, 11. lake, 12. make, 13. open, 14. path, 15. reckon, 16. shape, 17. ship, 18. toll, 19. tongue, 20. two.
c. 1. 'wood' Zimmer 'that which is surrounded by wood'; 2. 'plate, food' Tisch 'that on which food is served'; 3. 'in favor of' Sache 'thing, legal matter'; 4. 'settlement' Zaun 'fence, that which surrounds the settlement'; 5. 'unfortunate circumstance' Pflicht 'moral duty'; 6. 'worry' fressen 'to eat (of an animal'; 7. 'round flower decoration' Rad 'wheel'; 8. 'door, opening' Gasse 'narrow street'; 9. 'group' Zaum 'bridle'; 10. 'old-fashioned' tüchtig 'efficient'; 11. 'commit language to paper' reißen 'to scratch'; 12.'miserable, grey' traurig 'sad'; 13. 'trial, unfortunate circumstance' Urteil 'judgment'; 14. 'well-dressed, snappy' tapfer 'courageous'; 15. 'water, flood' Zeit 'time.'
d. Gmc *p, *t, *k, *b, *d, *g, *f, *þ, *x;
OHG pf, ff, z, zz, ch, hh, b, t, g, f, d, h.
e. 1. Rabe, 2. geben, 3. haben, 4. streben, 5. Laib; 6. shove, 7. live, 8. weave, 9. sieve, 10. heave.
f. 1. 'instrument for heating' Stube '(heated) room'; 2. 'spouse' Weib 'woman'; 3. 'make move, travel' treiben 'push, make move'; 4. 'rascal' Knabe 'boy ' (poetical); 5. 'remove beard' schaben 'scrape': 6. 'die of hunger' sterben 'die.'

1.422 a. 1. strength, 2. meet, 3. gilt, 4. deem, 5. elder, 6. brother, 7. fox, 8. foot, 9. mouse, 10. long.
b. 1. behende, 2. überschwenglich, 3. edel, 4. Eltern, 5. elend, 6. fertig, 7. Gehege.

c. 1. Eis, 2. beißen, 3. Pfeife, 4. schmeißen, 5. weit, 6. reiten, 7. oak, 8. goat, 9. clothe, 10. home, 11. stone, 12. alone. 13. Dieb, 14. frieren, 15. Grieche, 16 Siegel, 17. Kiel, 18. beer, 19. fee, 20. siege 21. zeal, 22. smear, 23. Münze, 24. küssen, 25. Hölle, 26. Sünde, 27. kühn, 29. twelve, 29. thin, 30. hear, 31. feel, 32. swear.

1.423 a. Inf: geben; pres: gebe, gibst, gibt, geben, gebt, geben; spec. subj: gebe, gebest, gebet, geben, gebet, geben; past: gab, gabst, gab, gab, gaben, gabt, gaben; gen subj: gäbe, gäbest, gäbe, gäben, gäbet, gäben; pres. part: gebend; past part: gegeben.

1. Through analogy to pres. ind.
2. -es 1st pl pres and past ind; -t sie-form pres; -i pres part.
3. -i- du- and er-form pres; -e- ihr-form pres; -u- ihr-form.
4. ich-, er-form and past.
5. Because of -i in inflectional syllable: du- and er-form pres.
6. OHG -u, -i-, -a-, -ē-, -ī-.

b. Tag, Tag, Tag(e), Tages; Tage, Tage, Tagen, Tage.
Gast, Gast, Gast(e), Gastes; Gäste, Gäste, Gästen, Gäste.
Bote, Boten, Boten, Boten; pl all Boten.
Lamm, Lamm, Lamm(e), Lammes; Lämmer, Lämmer, Lämmern, Lämmer.
Mutter all sg; Mütter, Mütter, Müttern, Mütter.
Zunge all sg; Zungen all pl.

1. /-(ə)n/ der-class OHG boto; die-class OHG zunga
   /-(¨)ə/ der-classes OHG tag, gast
   /-(¨)ər/ das-class OHG lamb
   /-(¨)-/ die-class OHG muoter
2. "Weak" der-nouns have an /-n/ in all oblique cases, no /-s/ in gen sg.
3. Analogy to "strong" der-nouns; /-s/ was added to "weak" /-n/.

1.424 a. Auferstehung.
b. 1.=13; 2.=10; 3.=15; 4.=7; 5.=9; 6.=1; 7.=8; 8.=3; 9.=12; 10=2; 11.=6; 12.=4; 13.=14; 13.=14; 14.=5; 15.=11.

1.5

1.51 a. Usually not taught at all; it should be through reading aloud.
b. 1. Frau (4); 2. Schwalbe (1)/(3) 3. Pfau (2); 4. Treue (4); 5. weit (1); 6.bauen (4); 7. Braue (2); 8. euer (4).
c. 1. Leib (1); 2. schöpfen (5); 3. bauen (1); 4. Pilz (4); 5. Häuser (1); 6. zwölf (5); 7. gut (2); 8. Nonne (3); 9. wo (5); 10. Güte (2); 11. Sommer 12. Hölle (5); 13. Maus (1); 14. spritzen (4); 15. Buch (2); 16. Lied (2); 17. schwören (5); 18. Sonne (3); 19. Löffel (5); 20. ohne (5); 21. Schwein (1); 22. müde (2); 23. streifen (4); 24. mögen (3).
d. 1. Herr (4); 2. Stube (1); 3. Tür (3); 4. ging (4); 5. liegen (1); 6. Viertel (3); 7. geben (1); 8. Erde (3); 9. brachte (4); 10. Mutter (6); 11. Weg (2); 12. Lerche (4); 13. ihr (3);

14. lassen (6); 15. Fahrt (3); 16. Jammer (6); 17. Licht (4); 18. sagen (1).

e.1. Gmc: *i, *(e), *a, *u, *(ī), *(ē), *ā, *ū, *(eu), *ai, *au.
OHG: i, e, a, u, o, ei, ie, ā, uo, u, iu, eo, e, ei, ō, ou.
NHG: i, e, a, ä, u, ü, ei, i, a, ǟ, u, ü, au, äu, eu, ī, e, ei, o, ō, au, äu.
2. ei: (9)&(20); ie /ī/: (10)&(18); au:(15)&(23); äu:(16)&(24).
3. e: (2)&(4); ē(19) & ǟ (12); äu (16),(24)&eu(17).
4. 17, 7 long, 7 short, 3 diphthongs.
5. Umlaut (4), (6), (8), (12), (14), (16), (22), (24).
6. Monophth: (10), (13), (18); Diphth: (9), (13), (17).

1.52 a. I. ritt(en) pl; II. bot(en) sg; IIIa. band(en) sg; IIIb. half(en) sg; IV. nahm(en) pl; V. gab(en pl.
b. 1. Unjustified, since brennen etc. are Gmc. *jan verbs while bringen etc. are not and show loss of nasal before spirant.
2. Somewhat justified, since both display similar NHG characteristics.
3. Justifiable in conjunction with the formation of past tense. However, the pres and semantic range as well as syntax of modals differ substantially. To avoid confusion, modals should be discussed separately.
c. 1. r/s; 2. r/s; 3. r/s; 4. s/r; 5. e/r; 6. s/r; 7. e/r; 8. r/s; 9. s/r; 10. e/r; 11. s/r; 12. r/e; 13. s/e; 14. e/r.
d. 1. e/r; 2. r/e; 3. 3/s; 4. r/s; 5. r/s; 6. e/r; 7. r/s.

1.53 a. 1. 'bright, lit'; 2. 'fast, quick'; 3. 'silly, foolish'; 4. 'grain, that which the field carries'; 5. 'dead body, corpse'; 6. '(morally) noble'; 7. 'prostitute'; 8. 'evil deed'; 9. 'wedding'; 10. 'work'; 11. 'corpulent, fat, thick'; 12. 'soon'; 13. 'bad'; 14. 'invent'; 15. 'modest, restrained'; 16. 'soft, mild'; 17. 'cowardly'; 18. 'lazy, rotten (of food)'; 19. 'cunning, craftiness'; 20. 'feed, nurture.'
b. 1.=4; 2.=7; 3.=12; 4.=8; 5.=9; 6.=6; 7.=3; 8.=5; 9.=1; 10.=2; 11.=10; 12.=11.
c. 1. '-ty': university, modality: -tät: Universität, Modalität;
2. '-tion': nation, ration; -tion: Nation, Ration;
3. '-ence': intelligence, eminence; -enz: Intelligenz, Eminenz;
4. 'ion': region, vision; -ion: Region, Vision:
5. '-or': motor, doctor; -or: Mótor, Dóktor (pl. Doktóren);
6. '-um': museum, decorum; -um: Museum (pl. Museen), Dekorum.

1.6 a. 1. -n (verkundē, 1)/ -d (vn̄, 1).
2. ei (Reichs, 2), ay (Kayserlicher, 4), ey (keinerley, 12), ai (durchslaiffet, 11).
ie (offenbieff, 5), i (disem, 5).
eu (euch, 1), ew (ewrm, 7).
i (ir, 5), j (jme, 12).
z (zethun, 13), c (denunciiern, 1), tz (Frantzen, 2).
3. No umlaut: verkundē 1, Furstenthumben 7, Sloβsen 8, Dorffern 8, etc. Umlaut: erklerten 2, Steten, Mergkten 8, etzet, drenket 10; Romischer 4, fuͤr 6.
4. tz: Frantzen 2; ff: Dorffern 8; gk: Mergkten 8; βs: Sloβsen 8.
5. No, cf. line 8 vs line 9.
b. 1. dat, 1; ziden, 1.
2. /e/=/i/: minschen, 2; /ā/=<ai> straifen (strafen), 5.
3. is, 1; un, 3; nu, 4 (ist, und, nun).

4. knecht, 4; bfunden, 2.
5. wurdent historical and conservative.
6. No lowering before nasal: sun-sün, NHG Sohn-Söhne.
7. hett, 1; erb, 2; mül, 3; sün 1,3.

1.61 a. Mentel's style is clumsy because he repeatedly uses colorless verbs and nominal constructions: gemacht in die gleichsam (4-5), gemacht gehorsam (6-7). In contrast, Luther uses expressive verbs and passive constructions: ward gehorsam (7). Through deletion of the subject, the style becomes more concise: Ernidriget sich selbs (6).
b. 1. 'fat'/ 'very fat' (3); 2. 'scold'/'punish' (3); 3. 'splinter'/(splinter) (1); 4. (poet. 'dress')/'dress' (3) 5. 'lip of an an animal'/'lip' (3); 6. 'goat'/Upper German 'goat' (2); 7. 'mental anguish'/'anguish' (3); 8. (puddle')/'pond' (2); 9.(poet. 'beach')/'shore' (3); 10 'infirmity'/('infirmity') (1); 11. Upper German 'pot'/ 'pot' (2); 12. ('show-off')/ 'hypocrit' (1).

1.62 a. 1. die Zeit (acc); 2. die Qual (acc); 3. Ein Gepräch (acc); 4. sie (acc); 5. den Mord an dem Vater (prep. phrase).
b. 1. Uber mein wohlgelungenes (acc instead of gen); 2. bei Ihnen (dat instead of acc); 3. gegen meine Qual (acc instead of dat); 4. ohne ihren Lysias (acc instead of dat); 5. Seit dem (D/G); 6. neben Sie (A/D); 7. auf ihren (A/D); 8. an Ihren Trost (acc instead of dat); 9. in dem Nebenzimmer (dat instead of acc); 10. an meiner Schulter (dat instead of acc.).

1.63 a. 1. 'fear of God'; 2. 'rebirth'; 3. 'temple of idols'; 4. 'orient'; 5. 'lump of gold'; 6. 'fiery zeal'; 7. 'scandalous tongue'; 8. 'den of murderers'; 9. 'memorandum'; 10. 'baptism by fire'; 11. 'changeable as weather'; 12. 'paralytic.'
b. 1. 'like pebbles on the beach'; 2. 'the heavenly hosts'; 3. 'thoughts and desires'; 4. 'forbidden fruit'; 5. 'thorn in the side'; 6. 'ragtag and bobtail'; 7. 'wolf in sheeps' clothing'; 8. 'to preach to the winds'; 9. 'a sealed book'; 10. 'a stumbling block.'

1.7 a. e.g., e Arie, s Konzert, s Adagio, s Intermezzo, s Divertimento, r (Mezzo)Sopran, r Tenor, r Baß, s Libretto.
b. 1. e Geographie, 2. e Polygamie, 3. r Respekt, 4. s Rendez vous, 5. e Methode, 6. e Passion, 7. e Atmosphäre, 8. s Postskriptum, 9. sensibel, 10. absurd. 11. r letzte Wille, 12. s Weltreich, 13. s Tageblatt/e Tageszeitung, 14. e Eßlust, 15. e Menschlichkeit, 16. s Bruchstück, 17. r Umschlag, 18. eintönig, 19. dauernd/bleibend; 20. allgemein.

1.71 a. Jeder, 2; producieren, 2; Verhältniß, 14; Irrthum, 16.
b. lang, 4; Unruh, 4; bessern, 5.
c. 1. 'perform, create'/vorführen, aufführen, dichten.
2. 'strange, puzzling'/Seltsames, Eigenartiges.
3. 'situation'/in derselben Lage.
4. 'illusion, delusion'/falsche Vorstellung.
5. 'lightheartedness'/leichten Sinn, Mutwilligkeit.
6. 'games, undertakings'/Spiele, Unterhaltung.

d. 1. Junge; 2. Jedoch/Aber; 3. Mitbewerber; 4. (Haus)Lehrer; 5. den ich (gern) mochte; 6. fiel..mir ein.
e. wo Jeder von uns (1-2) = bei der; welche...vorbrachten (6-7) = die; worin ich stand (14) = in dem; wobei ich gut bestand (27) = bei der or die.
f. Spec Subj: habe sie selbst gemacht (13); ob...seien (19); Gen Subj: ob...befände (17-18); ob...möchte (19-21)

1.8 a. In America, major dialect distinctions are made between north and south, which are considered of equal social value, as opposed to standard and substandard, the latter the language of ethnic or socially deprived groups.
In Germany, dialect distinctions are exclusively regional and have little to do with education or social standing. The differences in dialects are so great that speakers from different regions must resort to the standard language so that they can understand each other.
b. 1. 'to shift points, ease one's way' (1) 2. 'to be in good form, shape (3); 3. 'to stimulate artificially' (2); 4. 'specific weight' (2); 5 'to keep at the ball, follow through' (3); 6. 'a big reception'(1); 7. 'to probe' (2); 8. 'to go to the ground, on the mat' (3) 9. 'to keep the equilibrium' (3); 10. 'to kick someone out of the boat' (3); 11. 'buffer state' (1); 12. 'to find the right leap, get a good start' (3).

1.81 a. 1. = 2.; 2.=3 3.=6.; 4.=8.; 5.=9.; 6.=12; 7.=13; 8.=15; 9.=17; 10.=19.; 11.=22; 12.=23; 13.=26; 14.=27; 15.=29.
b. 1.=(2); 2.=(4); 3.=(3); 4.=(4=(4,5); 5.=(3); 6.=(5); 7.=(4); 8.=(1,2); 9.=(1,2); 10.=(1,2,3); 11.=(4); 12.=(1,2); 13.=(5); 14.=(4,5); 15.=(4,5); 16.=(4); 17.=(5); 18.=(1,2); 19.=(1,2,3); 20.=(3); 21.=(3,4); 22.=(3.4); 23.=(1,2); 24.=(1); 25.=(1,2); 26.=(5); 27.=(1.2); 28.=(2,3); 29.=(1); 30.=(3,4); 31.=(5); 32.=(1,2); 33.=(5); 34.=(1,2); 35.=(2,3).

1.82 a. 1.=(5); 2.=(4); 3.=(1); 5.=(5); 6.=(3); 7.=(1); 8.=(4); 9.=(3); 10.=(5); 11.=(3); 12.=(3); 13.=(3); 14.=(3); 15.=(3); 16.=(2).
b. 1.=(1); 2.=(4); 3.=(6); 4.=(2); 5.=(10); 6.=(10); 7.=(6); 8.=(9); 9.=(12); 10.=(12); 11.=(6); 12.=(5); 13.=(7); 20.=(6); 21.=(11); 22.=(10); 23.=(11); 24.=(10); 25.=(2); 26.=(12); 27.=(8).

c. 1.=Low German; 2.=Bavarian; 3.=Silesian; 4.=Swabian; 5.=Low German; 6.=Bavarian.

1.9

1.91 a. 1. Schottel's definition is relatively modern in that it includes form and marker, although no function.
2. This notional definition of a noun has little value since it ignores form, function, and marker, as well as other parts of speech which can also be nouns (e.g. 'a must,' 'the ups and downs,' and 'rich and poor'). Schottel's definition is superior.
3. In most instances, students learn English grammatical terminology when they acquire their first foreign language. The addition of another meta-language is an impractical burden. However, advanced students,

particularly those who want to become teachers, should know the German grammatical terminology in order to use German reference handbooks.

b. 1. demonstrative pronoun, 2. article, 3. superlative, 4. inflection, 5. verb, 6. genitive, 7. past perfect tense, 8. passive voice, 9. noun, 10. singular, 11. nominative case, 12. object. 13. r Wen-Fall, 14. e Zeitform, 15. e Befehlsform, 16. r Satzgegenstand, 17. r bezügliche Satz, 18. s Bindewort, 19. e Aussageweise, 20. s Umstandswort, 21. e Sprachlehre, 22. s persönliche Fürwort, 23. e Tatform, 24. e Satzlehre.

1.92 a. 1.=(2),(3),(4),(1); 2.=(4),(3),(2),(1); 3.=(3),(2),(4),(1); 4.=(1),(3),(2),(4); 5.=(3),(2),(4),(1).

b. 1.=(1); 2.=(2); 3.=(1); 4.=(2); 5.=(2); 6.=(1); 7.=(2), 8.=(2); 9.=(1); 10.=(2); 11.=(1); 12.=(1).

CHAPTER TWO

2. PHONOLOGY

2.1 a. Ideally, at least 10% of an elementary textbook volume should be devoted to phonology.
b. Very few elementary textbooks contain articulatory descriptions and drills.
c. The attitude should be that good German pronunciation is important and that the time spent on practicing it is very worthwhile.

2.2 Eine Biene fällt ins Wasser. Eine Nachtigall sitzt auf einem Baum und sieht die Biene im Wasser. Sie sieht, daß die Biene ans Land schwimmen will. Sie nimmt ein Blatt vom Baum und läßt das Blatt ins Wasser fallen. Die Biene setzt sich auf das Blatt und kommt in wenigen Minuten glücklich ans Land. Einige Tage spater sitzt die Nachtigall wieder auf einem Baum. Ein Junge kommt, nimmt einen Stein und will die Nachtigall töten. Schnell setzt sich die Biene auf die Hand des Jungen. Der Junge fühlt den Stachel der Biene, läßt den Stein fallen, und die Nachtigall fliegt weg.

2.3

2.31 a. 1./p/; 2. /h/; 3. /θ/; 4. /f/; 5. /x/; 6. /b/; 7. /m/; 8. /pf/; 9. /g/; 10. /t/; 11. /n/; 12. /k/; 13. /ç/; 14. /d/; 15. /ð/; 16. /v/; 17. /ts/; 18. /j/; 19. /r/; 20. /n/; 21. /z/; 22. /l/; 23. /š/; 24. /s/; 25. /ž/.
b. 1. /p/ (1) - /b/ (6); /f/(4) - /v/ (16); /s/(24) - /z/(21);
/t/(10) - /d/(14); /θ/(3) - /ð/(15); /š/(23) - /ž/(25);
/k/(12) - /g/(9); /ç/(13) - /j/(18).
2. /θ/ and /ð/. 3. /ç/. 4. /pf/, /ts/. 5. /m/, /n/, /ŋ/. 6. /x/. 7. /h/. 8. /l/.
c. 1. /h/ not a bilabial, but a glottal. 2. /a/ not a consonant, but a vowel. 3. /r/ not a nasal, but a trill. 4. /l/ not a spirant, but a lateral. 5. /n/ not a stop, but a nasal. 6. /ts/ not a sibilant, but an affricate. 7. /t/ not voiced, but voiceless. 8. /p/ not a spirant, but a stop. 9. /t/ not a velar, but a dental. 10. /f/ not voiced, but voiceless.

2.32

2.33 a. /x/.
b. The most important technique is to give students self-confidence by praising them when they succeed in pronouncing the target sound accurately. First, the teacher should teach auditory discrimination by having students listen to pairs contrasting familiar sounds and foreign sounds. Then the class should repeat the examples in chorus, followed by words which use the sound in different surroundings. Students should then individually pronounce those words.
c. It is a sound approach to first practice orally. However, students are conditioned to view language in its written form and quickly get bored and disconcerted when not allowed to read and write. The period of exclusively oral work should not be long.

2.331 a. <z> /ts/ Ziel /tsīl/, all, /z/, zeal /zīl/
<s> /z/ so /zō/, all, /s/, so /sō/
/t, p/ /š/ still /štil/, /t, p/ /s/ still /stil/
front /ç/ ich /iç/
<ch>back /x/ auch /aux/, all /tš/ church /tčɛtč/
/s/ /k/ sechs /zeks/
<th>all /t/ Thema /tēmā/, all /θ, ð/ thigh /θai/, thy /ðai/
<w> all /v/ wasʌ/ vasʌ/, all /w/ water /wɔtʌ/

b. 1. steche-stecke; dächte-deckte, dich-dick, röchen-Röcken; 2. welchen-welschen, Gicht-Gischt, Wächter-wäscht er, leicht-heischt; 3. wichen-wachen, Nächte-Nacht, Löcher-Loch, Frauchen-rauchen; 4. Zucht-zuckt, sacht-sackt, roch-Rock.

2.332 a. Using contrastive English-German minimal pairs, have students listen to examples. Explain the different position for articulation; have students repeat the sound and contrastive examples.

b. 1. weil-while, Bild-built, lief-leaf, fällt-felt;
2. Rhein-Rhine, Ritt-writ, braun-brown, Frost-frost;
3. Biere-Bier, führe-für, gehören-Gehör, Heere-Heer;
4. schirrt- schilt, hart-Halt, Herd-Held, Kurt-Kult.

2.333 a. Scham-sahm, Masche-mushy, schiele-Sheila, Tisch-dish, Flasche-flashy.

b. /p/ medial: Lampe-bumper, Schärpe-sharper; final: ab-up Lump-lump; /t/ medial; sollte-salty, warte-party; final: kalt-colt, hart-heart; /k/ medial: welke-bulky, wirke-turkey; final: sank-sank, welk-elk.

2.334 a.

	ENGLISH					GERMAN					
	(Vowel)	/r/	/l/	/n/	/w/	(Vowel)	/r/	/l/	/m/	/n/	/v/
/p/	-----	+	+			-----	+	+		⊕	
/t/	-----	+			+	-----	+				(+)
/k/	-----	+	+		+	-----	+	+		⊕	+
/b/	-----	+	+			-----	+	+			
/d/	-----	+			+	-----	+				
/g/	-----	+	+			-----	+	+		⊕	
/f/	-----	+	+			-----	+	+			
/s/	-----		+			-----					
/š/	-----	+		(+)	(+)	-----	⊕	⊕	⊕	⊕	⊕
/sp/	+	+	+								
/st/	+	+									
/šp/						+	⊕	⊕			
/št/						+	⊕				
/sk/	+	+					+	+			

1. --
2. Reading the stops before nasal is difficult for English speakers who will include a /ə/ between the stop and nasal.
3. Interference of writing system in terms of English.

b. /pf/ and /ts/ arose in pre-OHG times in the OHG consonant shift from Gmc *p and *t before vowels, after liquids and when doubled.

c. /pf/: /pfant/, /hüpfən/, /stumpf/;
/ps/: /psalm/, /stöpsəl/, /mops/;
/ts/: /tsart/, /hetsən/, /herts/;
/tš/: /tšeçə/, /lātšən/, /matš/;
/dž/: /džungəl/, /ādādzō/, ---

2.4

2.41 a. 1. Kiele, kühle, Kuhle; 2. Bohnen, Besen, bösen; 3. lagen; 4. rissen, rüsten, rösten, Resten; 5. Rose, Rabe, Ruhe; 6. Leute, leite, läute, Laute; 7. Stiele, steht, Staat, gestohlen, Stuhl.

b. 1. /ü/; 2. /a/; 3. /ə/; 4. /u/; 5. /e/; 6. /ȫ/; 7. /o/; 8. /i/.

c. 1. /ī/ and /i/; /ē/ and /e/; /ū/ and /u/; /ō/ and /o/; /ǖ/ and /ü/; /ȫ/ and /ö/; /ā/ and /a/.
2. /ə/.
3. /ǖ/, /ü/, /ȫ/, /ö/.

d. 1. /ī/, /ǖ/, /ē/, /ō,/. 2. /ū/, /ō/, /ā/. 3. /ǖ/, /ü/, /ȫ/, /ö/.

2.42 a. Open: stressed, long tense and short tense; unstressed short tense.
Closed: stressed, short lax; unstressed short lax.

b. 1. gäben, schweren, sägen, dehnen, wägen, stehlen.
2. In dictations.
3. Yes, if the teacher makes a distinction.

2.43

2.431 a. 1. [buxdrukʌkunst; 2. kindʌ̣špīl; 3. nēbənstelə; 4. kostprōbə; 5. šītsriçtʌ; 6. mērəsvelən; 7. hōzənrok; 8. untʌ̣zūxuŋ; 9. visbəgīr; 10. goltkrōnə]

b. 1. [roimliçkaitən; 2. zaitənaingan; 3. roibʌ̣boitə; 4. aistsait; 5. zaubʌ̣kait; trauʌ̣klait; 7. maurʌ̣sloitə; 8. augənaufšlāk; 9. maistgəbrauxt].

c. 1. [šprečən-šprečʌ̣n, fārən-fāhrʌ̣n, tsaigən-tsaigʌ̣n;
2. lāgə-lāgʌ̣, flīgə-flīgʌ̣, frāgə-frāgʌ̣;
3. zīgəs-zīgʌs, tišəs-tišlʌ̣s, fišəs-fišʌ̣s;
4. bōtən-bōtin, grīçən-grīçin, gatən-gatin].

2.432 a. [faigʌ̣ gədankən
benglįçəs šwankən
vaibišəs tsāgən
eŋkstliçəs klāgən
vendət kain ēlənt
maxt diç niçt frai
allən gəvaltən
tsum trots ziç ʌhaltən
nimʌ̣ ziç boigən
kreftiç ziç tsaigən
rūfət dī armə
dēr götʌ hʌbai]

b. /ā/: Zagen, Klagen; /a/: Gedanken, Schwanken, macht, allen, Gewalten, erhalten, Arme; /o/: Trotz.

c. /ā/: Schale, fahle, Lachen, rate, Base, Wahlen
/a/: schalle, falle, lachen, Ratte, Basse, wallen
/o/: Scholle, volle, lochen, Rotte, Bosse, wollen.

2.433 a. [ax aus dīzəs tāləs gründən
dī der kaltə nēbəl drǖkt
dort ʌblik iç šȫnə hǖgəl
ēviç juŋ unt ēviç grün

könt iç dox dēn ausgaŋ findən   het iç švingən het iç flūgəl
ax vī fült iç miç bəglükt   nāx den hūgəln flōk iç hin]

b. 1. fühlt, viel, Pfuhl; 2. Hügel, Riegel, Ruhe; 3. grün, grienen, Grunewald; 4. Flügel, Fliege, Flug; 5. Gründen, schinden, Schrunden; 6. drückt, strickt, druckt; 7. beglückt, bestrickt, beguckt; 8. schön, geschehen, schon; 9. zög, Zehe, zog; 10. könnt, kennt, gekonnt.

c. [kRēən šRain   štar   tōr   vintʌvandʌšaft
švirən tsuʌ   Rukveɹts   fəɹlōʌ   Rauxə
virt   nar   fəɹlōʌst   keltʌn
dēʌ   fōʌ vintʌs   nirgənts   šnar
fəɹ štek
herts]

2.434 1. /ˌe' sens; 2. ˌtsī'garə; 3. ˌe'lek,triš; 4. ˌlī,tsen'zī,ruŋ; 5. ˌkom,pro'mi,sə; 6. ˌde,mō'kra,tiš; 7. ˌre,stau,rā'tsiōn; 8. ˌkom,prō,mi'tī,rən; 9. ˌan,trō,pō'lō,giš; 10. ˌdē,tsen-ˌtrā,lī'zī,ruŋ; 11. ˌko,lā,bō,rā'tsiōn; 12. ˌē,lek,trī, tsī'tēt; 13. ˌdē,mī,lī,tā,ri'zī,ruŋ; 14. ˌrē,or,gā,nī,zā 'tsiōn; 15. ˌo,no,ma,tō,pō'ē,tiš/

2.5

2.51 a. 'Über,fall-,über'fallen; ,Unter'haltung- ,unter'halten 'Ur,teil- ,er'teilen; 'Durch,bruch-,durch'brechen; 'Ur,laub- ,er'lauben; 'Zu,kunft- 'zu,kommen.

b. 1. tritt..'über, über'tritt; 2. ist 'über,ge,treten, hat ,über'treten; 3. 'über,treten, ,über'treten; 4. 'über,tritt, ,über'tritt.

c. 1. ,Mo'toren, 2. ,Dä'monen, 3. ,Pas'toren, 4. ,At'lanten 5. ,Charak'tere, 6. ,Diri'genten.

2.52 Since the differences in intonation between English and German are slight, no theoretical discussion is needed in the classroom. The teacher should observe whether German intonation is imitated correctly, especially in dialogues.

2.53 a. The impression arose from the glottal stop /ʔ/ used in German at the onset of words and syllables beginning with a vowel.

b. By slowing the speech and by articulating each word separately and applying the glottal stop, students will hear the difference and can be taught the glottal stop.

2.6

2.61 a. 1. /z/; 2. /š/; 3. /s/; 4. /z/; 5. /s/; 6. /s/.

b. 7. /s/; 8. /s/.

c. 9. <s> when the inflected forms have medial /z/: Los-Lose /lōs-lōzə/; <β> is spelled when the inflected forms have medial /s/: Schoβ-Schöβe /šōs-šōsə/

d. 10. /s/

e. 1.=(1); 2.=(2); 3.=(3); 4.=(4); 5.=(6); 6.=(10); 7.=(5); 8.=(7); 9=(10); 10.=(10); 11.=(8); 12.=(10); 13.=(5); 14.=(6); 15.=(2); 16.=(4); 17.=(8); 18.=(4); 19.=(6); 20.=(4).

f. In wessen Wohnung sind Sie gewesen? 2. Mit diesem Besen soll Ilse besser fegen. 3. Wo hast du das Buch gelassen,

das wir lasen? 4. Mit Getöse fiel der Wasserkessel herunter. 5. Anneliese hat Muße, ihre weiße Bluse zu waschen. 6. Wer hat die große Vase mit den Rosen umgestoßen? 7. Ein weiser Mann bleibt zu Hause, wenn draußen tausend Autos durch die Straßen sausen. 8. Sie müssen wissen, daß das Wasser jetzt heiß ist. 9. Er soll diese Flüssigkeit nicht über seine bloßen Füße gießen. 10. Wenn ich nur wüßte, ob der Sturm die Ostküste verwüstet hat. 11. Sie haßt diesen häßlichen Kasten. 12. Er hat gewußt, wie der Pastor heißt. 13. Die besten Leistungen der Studenten werden von der Schule begrüßt.

2.62 1. Wir /ī/ trinken /i/ hier /ī/ viel /ī/ Bier /ī/. 2. Mitte /i/ April /i/ bittet /i/ Ilse /i/ ihren /i/ Mieter /ī/ um die /ī/ Miete /ī/ und gibt /ī/ ihm /ī/ eine Quittung /i/. 3. Sabine /ī/ ißt /i/ vier /ī/ riesige /ī/ Birnen /i/. 4. Peter /ē/ und Eva /ē/ sehen /ē/ an dieser Stelle /e/ die hellen /e/ Wellen auf dem /ē/ See /ē/. 5. Auf dem /ē/ rechten /e/ Feld /e/ steht /ē/ stets /ē/ eine Herde /ē/ schneller /e/ Pferde /ē/. 6. Wir brechen die Kekse auf dem Teller. 7. Er sagte müde /ü/, er müsse /ü/ Bücher /ṻ/ lesen 8. An den Flüssen /ü/ liegen hüben /ṻ/ und drüben /ṻ/ Hügel /ṻ/. 9. Die Mütter /ü/ hüten /ṻ/ hüstelnd /ṻ/ die Türen /ṻ/ der Hütten /ṻ/. 10. Die Zölle /ö/ wurden plötzlich /ö/ wieder erhöht /ö/. 11. Mögen /ō̈/ Sie rötliche /ō̈/ Hölzer /ö/? 12. Die schöne /ō̈/ Österreicherin /ō̈/ errötete /ō̈/.

b. In den Feldern, Wäldern und Täler jener Länder leben viele beerenessende Bären. 2. Die verhehrende Kälte lähmte die Kräfte der härtesten Männer. 3. Die ernsten Wähler ernennen die ehrlichen Räte der besten Städte. 4. Brigitte ißt ihren Fisch am Tisch im finsteren Zimmer. 5. Die siegreichen Griechen schließen immer wieder Frieden. 6. Sie schrieb mir sieben ausgiebige Briefe. 7. Der Igel und der Biber sind niedliche Tiere. 8. Im Mai singt Heinz eine kleine Weise. 9. Die weise Waise bleibt mit einem Laib Brot allein. 10. Der Kaiser reitet im Hain am Rain des Rheins. 11. Mais und Reis sind nicht heimische Getreide. 12. Die Leute säumen unter euren Bäumen oder in teuren Häusern. 13. Neue Gebäude kosten hohe Steuern. 14. Heute läutet er die Glocke freudig. 15. Die Meute bekämpft das heulende, leuchtende Feuer mit keuchenden Wasserschläuchen.

2.63 a. Open syllables signal long vowels, closed syllables short vowels; for spelling, pronunciation, and syllabic division.

b. 1. kö-nig-li-che Ho-heit; 2. treue Freun-din-nen; 3. un-sin-ni-ge Be-haup-tun-gen; 4. zuk-ker-sü-ße Kek-se; 5. bun-te Herbst-astern; 6. er-wach-se-ne En-kel-kin-der: 7. die Ver-ei-nig-ten Staa-ten; 8. deut-sche Gründ-lich-keit; 9. un-will-kom-me-ne Gä-ste; 10. Auf-fas-sungs-ver-

mö-gen; 11. Er-bau-ungs-li-te-ra-tur; 12. Ein-kaufs-li-ste; 13. Un-ter-su-chungs-ge-fäng-nis; 14. au-ßer-or-dent-li-che Mü-he; 15. Re-gie-rungs-di-rek-to-ren.

2.64-2.65 Karl der Große überragte mit seiner Körpergröße von 1,92 Metern äußerlich seine Umgebung. Man sah auch an seinem von blonden Locken umrahmten Antlitz mit der etwas überlangen, gebogenen Nase und den gewöhnlich gütigen, nur in der Leidenschaft aufflammenden Augen den geborenen Herrscher. Seine hohe, durchdringende Stimme war das passende Werkzeug seines wendigen Geistes. Der durch Übungen aller Art gestählte Körper versagte sich dessen Anforderungen nie. Tief eingewurzelt war in Karl der Glaube an die fränkische Weltsendung, die nach seinem Tode Otfried von Weißenburg mit den stolzen Worten wiedergab: "Die Franken sind hochgemut. Zu vielem Guten, zu vielem Vorteil führt sie der Verstand. Kein Volk, das an ihr Land grenzt, entzieht sich ihnen. Durch ihre Tüchtigkeit zwingen sie es, ihnen zu dienen. Alles, was sie im Sinne haben, führen sie mit Gott aus; nichts tun sie in der Not ohne seinen Rat."

CHAPTER THREE

3. VERB PHRASE

3.1

3.11 1.=(3); 2.=(2); 3.=(1); 4.=(1); 5.=(3); 6.=(4); 7.=(2); 8.=(3); 9.=(4); 10=(1); 11.=(2); 12.=(4); 13.=(3); 14.=(1); 15.=(3); 16.=(2); 17=(4); 18.=(3); 19.=(1); 20.=(2).

3.12 a. Since most grammatical concepts and terms of English are sometimes understood for the first time in foreign language classes, the additional German terminology is an unnecessary burden. However, students of advanced classes should be made aware of the German terms so that they can consult German handbooks.

b. 1. er-form, sg, present perfect tense indicative active. 2. du-form, sg, general subjunctive past expression with modal active. 3. ich-form, sg, present perfect indicative active. 4. wir-form, pl, present perfect with modal active indicative. 5. formal imperative. 6. he-form, sg. past perfect indicative active. 7. I-form, subjunctive, present expression, active. 8. they-form, pl, future perfect active indicative. 9. she-form, sg, past perfect indicative active, suppletion of modal. 10. we-form, pl, subjunctive or simple past passive indicative with modal.

3.13 a. Psychologically, it is sound to illustrate that there is only a limited number of grammatical phenomena; especially irregular forms (of which there are never many) should be shown numerically.

b. English has fewer strong verbs, one less modal, fewer mixed verbs. German has no verbs such as 'put-put-put' with no tense markers.

3.131 a. Yes: First sentence prepositional phrase; 2nd has German equivalent Er sieht den Zaun an (separable verb), 3rd Er übersieht den Zaun (inseparable).

b. 1. anzuzweifeln/zu bezweifeln; 2. zu ersteigen/zu besteigen; 3. abzuschließen/zu verschließen; 4. auszuarbeiten/zu bearbeiten; 5. weiterzusenden/nachzusenden; 6. zu erwachen/aufzuwachen; 7. zu erbauen/aufzubauen; 8. zu erweisen/zu beweisen; 9. abzukaufen/zu verkaufen; 10. abzufahren/zurückzufahren.

c. 1. zu durchbrechen/durchzubrechen; 2. zu unterstellen/unterzustellen; 3. unterzugraben/zu untergraben; 4. zu überziehen/überzuziehen; 5. zu durchfahren/durchzufahren; 6. umzuschreiben/zu umschreiben; 7. durchzukreuzen/zu durchkreuzen; 8. umzustellen/zu umstellen; 9. zu übergehen/überzugehen; 10. umzugehen/zu umgehen.

3.132 a. Since most verbs are weak in both languages, the pull of analogy brings new verbs into that class.

b. Beginning with English '-ed' and German -te-, students will see the similarity. The suffix is added to the unchanged stem, and in German the inflectional endings follow.

3.133 a. schneiden-schnitt-geschnitten; 2. wachsen-wuchs-gewachsen; 3. schmelzen-schmolz-geschmolzen; 4. winden-wand-gewunden; 5. frieren-fror-gefroren; 6. graben-grub-gegraben; 7. treiben-trieb-getrieben; 8. schwören-schwor-geschworen; 9. heben-hob-gehoben; 10. scheren-schor-geschoren; 11. schwellen-schwoll-geschwollen; 12. sieden-sott-gesotten; 13. verlieren-verlor-verloren; 14. treten-trat-getreten; 14. sinken-sank-gesunken; 16. verbieten-verbot-verboten; 17. binden-band-gebunden; 18. blasen-blies-geblasen; 19. trinken-trank-getrunken; 20. gebären-gebar-geboren.

b. Beginning with verbs such as singen-sang-gesungen (I-class) followed by sehen-sah-gesehen (E-class), similarities can be shown. Then, groups of verbs with the same patterns should be gradually introduced.

c. Verbs such as stehen-stand, gehen-ging, tun-tat, as well as those with Verner's Law ziehen-zog, schneiden-schnitt, etc. would belong in the class. Such a class is helpful, since it includes frequently used verbs that are otherwise not classifiable.

d. 1. always weak; 2. mostly weak; 3. mostly weak; 4. weak or strong; 5. weak or strong; 6. weak or strong; 7. mostly strong; 8. always weak; 9. mostly strong. 10. strong: gären, wägen, gebären, hängen; schwören; lügen, trügen, küren; 11. strong kommen, stoßen; rufen; laufen, saufen, saugen.

3.134 a. 1. set-set-set; 2. sit-sat-sat; 3. lay-laid-laid; 4. lie-lay-lain; 5. raise-raised-raised; 6. rise-rose-risen; 7. hang-hanged-hanged; 8. hang-hung-hung.

b. Weak verbs are transitive; strong verbs are intransitive.

c. Sentences such as (liegen-legen): Das Buch _____ auf dem Tisch. Ich _____ das Buch auf den Tisch. Gestern _____ das Buch dort. Vorhin _____ er es dorthin, etc. Or forming sentences: Mein Haus/ stehen/ in/Stadt. Milchmann/ Milch/an/ Tür/stellen, etc.

d. 1. wiegte, wog; 2. bewog, bewegte; 3. schaffte, schuf; 4. weichte, wich; 5. schliff, schleifte.

e. 1. wendete; 2. wandte; 3. wendete; 4. wendete; 5. wandte; 6. gesandt; 7. gesandt; 8. sendete; 9. sandte; 10. sandte; 11. schuf; 12. schaffte; 13. schaffte; 14. schuf; 15. schaffte; 16. bewegte; 17. bewegten; 18. bewog; 19. bewegt; 20. bewegte; 21. schleifte; 22. geschliffen; 23. schleifte; 24. geschliffen; 25. schleifte; 26. gehängt; 27. hingen; 28. gehangen; 29. gehangen; 30. gehängt; 31. erschreckt; 32. erschrak; 33. erschreckt; 34. erschraken; 35. erschrocken.

3.135 a. If strong verbs are defined as having a stem vowel change for tense formation and /n/ in the past participle, and weak verbs as having an unchanged stem and /t/ in the past participle, then the mixed verbs, which have characteristics of both, are in a position between the two types.

b. 'bring, think.'

3.1351 a. The term 'auxiliary' should be reserved for haben, sein and werden for the formation of tenses in a morpho-syntactic sense. Modals function primarily in the semantic realm and modify the meaning of other verbs; they can, however,

also stand alone.

b. They are ambiguous; depending on context, they can express both a past tense concept as well as subjunctive.

c. 1. may-dürfen; 2. must-müssen; 3. mögen; 4. shall-sollen; 5. can-können; 6. wollen; 7. may-dürfen; 8. can-können.

3.136 a. In both languages, the auxiliary is very irregular, comprising five stems which are, however, in different distribution.

b. 'He is getting sick/He is going to be sick.' He is going to be a teacher.' Er ist krank geworden. Er ist Lehrer geworden.

3.14

3.141

PERS NUM	MOR-PHEME	MOOD	TENSE	VERB TYPE	OTHER MORPHEMES	EXAMPLE
ich	/-ə/	ind	pres	weak	(none)	ich sage
				str.	(none)	ich singe
	/--/			mod.	changed stem	ich kann, will
			past	weak	inclusion /-tə-/	ich sagte-
				str.	ablaut	ich sang-
		spec subj		all	inclusion /-ə-/	ich wolle-
		gen subj		weak	(does not exist)	
				str.	abl, uml, /-ə-/ /-ə-/	ich sänge-
du	/-st/	ind	pres	weak	(none)	du sagst
				str.	sometimes umlaut	du fährst
				mod.	changed stem	du kannst, willst
			past	weak	inclusion /-tə-/	du sagtest
				str.	ablaut	du sangst
		spec subj		all	inclusion /-ə-/	du sagest, singest
		gen subj		weak	(does not exist)	
				str.	abl, uml, /-ə-/	du sängest
		imper		weak	(none)	sage!
				str.	(none)	singe!
	/---/			str.	e>i(e)	gib! lies!

PERS NUM	MOR-PHEME	MOOD	TENSE	VERB TYPE	OTHER MORPHEMES	EXAMPLE
er	/-t/	ind	pres	weak	(none)	er sagt
				str.	sometimes umlaut	er fährt
	/---/			mod.	changed stem	er kann, will
			past	weak	inclusion /-tə-/	er sagte-
				str.	ablaut	er sang-
		spec subj		all	inclusion /-ə-/	er sage, singe, wolle
		gen subj		weak	(does not exist)	
				mod.	umlaut, incl /-tə-/	er könnte-
				str.	abl, uml; /-ə-/	er sänge
wir, sie	/-n/	ind	pres	all	(none)	wir/sie sagen
				weak	inclusion /-tə-/	wir sagten
				str.	ablaut	wir sangen
		spec subj		all	(does not exist, except seien)	
		gen subj		weak	(does not exist)	
				str	umlaut, incl /-ə-/	wir sängen
ihr	/-t/	ind	pres	all	(none)	ihr sagt, singt
				weak	inclusion /-tə-/	ihr sagtet
				str	ablaut	ihr sangt
		spec subj		all	inclusion /-ə-/	ihr saget, singet
		gen subj		weak	(does not exist)	
				str	abl, uml, /-ə-/	ihr sänget
		imper		all	(none)	sagt! singt!

3.142 a. The analysis suggested here is more practical, since the past inflectional morphemes of weak and strong verbs, as well as the present of modals, are identical, collapsing the system of morphemes.

b. /-tə-/ in weak verbs functions in the same manner as /∼/ in strong verbs.

c. Often in the ich-form: Ich sag, and in imperative singular familiar: Komm!

3.1421 a. 1. /əd/ after dentals; 2. /d/ after vowels and voice consonants; 3. /t/ after voiceless consonants.

b. 1. /t/ no /ə/ although stem ends with dental: umlaut; 2. /ə-tə-t/ stem ends with dental, inclusion of /ə/; 3. /n/ no /ə/ after -el, -er; 4 /st/ no /ə/: umlaut; 5. /ə/ loss of /ə/ after -el, -er; 6. /ə-t/ stem ends with dental: 7. /ə-n/ inclusion of /ə/ after consonants other than -el, -er; 8. /tə-n/ no /ə/ since morpheme contains it; 9. /ə-t/ stem in dental; 10. /t/ instead of /st/ after sibilant; 11. /t/ no /ə/inclusion after vowel; 12. /n/ no /ə/ after -el, -er; 13. /ə-st/ after dental; 14. /(t)/ merger of dental stem ending and dental morpheme; umlaut; 15. /(s)t/ merger of sibilant stem ending and /st/ morpheme; 16. /ə-tə-/ inclusion of /ə/ after dental; 17. /ə-t/ inclusion of /ə/ after dental; 18. /ə-n/ inclusion of /ə/ after dental; 19. /n/ no /ə/ after -el; -er; 20. /(t)/ merger of dental: umlaut.

3.15

3.151 a. 'to' before the verb.

b. 1. to ask, pres; 2. to have seen, perf; 3. to have run, perf; 4. to build, pres; 5. to have studied, perf; 6. to have become, perf; 7. to have experienced, perf; 8. to have died, perf; 9. to greet, pres; 10. to have passed, perf.

3.152 a. Weak verbs with dental suffix; strong verbs with ablaut.

b. 1. verloren lost; 2. gebracht brought; 3. telefoniert telephoned; 4. geritten ridden; 5. gedrungen urged; 6. erhoben lifted up; 7. gekauft bought; 8. gewußt known; 9. beschrieben described; 10. gesessen sat.

3.153 a. 1. unterhaltend; 2. beängstigend; 3. glänzend; 4. tanzend; 5. wissend; 6. rennend; 7. werdend; 8. erwachend; 9. liebend; 10. ruinierend.

b. 1. Die Ruhe im Wald ist wohltuend. 2. An einem heißen Tag ist kühle Limonade erfrischend. 3. Harte Strafen sind für Kriminelle abschreckend. 4. Der Straßenlärm in unserem Haus ist störend. 5. Diese Behauptung ist nicht zutreffend. 6. Seine Bemerkungen waren ihr einleuchtend. 7. Die schwere Arbeit war für ihn ermüdend. 8. Viele Einbrüche sind für die Nachbarschaft beunruhigend. 9. Ein Glas Saft vor dem Essen ist appetitanregend. 10. Seine Bemerkungen waren für mich beleidigend.

3.16

3.161 a. 1. Weak verbs and those strong verbs which have no umlaut in the du-/er-forms. 2. wir-/sie-form; ich-, er-forms. 3. After all forms and verb types of the present have been mastered, the modals can be introduced before, or together with the simple past.

b. If the present participle is taught later, the interference is not great, except that students use the infinitive (*ich bin singen). Practice and pointing out that German has no progressive form will eliminate the problem.

3.162 a. wurde

b. 1. betrat, grüßte; 2. studierte, arbeitete; 3. zogen, ertrugen; 4. verschloß, stieg; 5. hängte, hing; 6. standen, verließen; 7. lernten, sangen, spielten, diskutierten;

8. beteuerte, versprach; 9. bedachten, überlegten; 10. ging, traf.

3.163 a. Because all unstressed vowels became /ə/, the forms merged.
b. würde is a regular form.
c. The examples show that the English general subjunctive looks like the simple past indicative and is used in conditional clauses. Useful as starting point.
d. hätte.
e. 1. none, sagen; 2. all: singen/bieten/fahren; 3. er, ich-form, laufen; 4. all forms; kennen; 5. all forms; 6. all forms; 7. none; 8. -17. all forms.

3.164 a. The forms illustrate that the he-form has no ending and that it is used in wishes and in indirect speech. Absence of /s/ in the he-form can be easily transferred to German absence of /-t/ in the er-form.
b. Since weak, strong and modal verbs form the special subjunctive by adding /ə/ to the stem, the special subjunctive is indeed more regular than the present indicative, for which umlaut and phonological conditioning must be learned.
c. 1. heute gehe er besonders ungern aus dem Haus. 2. das Wetter sei schlecht, es regne und stürme. 3. es scheine, als ob der Winter beginne. 4. leider rufe die Pflicht; er müsse gehen, ob er wolle oder nicht. 4. er habe einen Brief von Inge, der gute Neuigkeiten bringe. 6. sie werde bald zurückkommen und plane, uns zu besuchen. 7. er veranstalte dann ein Fest, zu dem er alle einlade. 8. er wisse aber nicht, wie er Hans erreichen könne. 9. Hans habe kein Telefon und wohne weit außerhalb. 10. es sei unwahrscheinlich, daß er Hans bald sehe.
d. 1. ihr, er, du-forms, sagen; 2. er, warten; 3. er, du, fahren; 4. er, du, halten; 5. ihr, er, du, singen; 6. er, reiten; 7.-9. all forms but wir/sie; 10. er, du; 11. ihr, er, du; 12. all forms.
e. 1. gen, bieten; 2. special, löten; 3. spec, lieben; 4. gen, stehen; 5. gen, schreiben; 6. gen, gehen; 7. spec, gelten; 8. spec, nehmen; 9. gen, denken; 10. gen, kennen; 11. gen, können; 12. spec, rufen; 13. gen, schaffen; 14. spec, wissen; 15. gen, leiden; 16. gen, lügen; 17. gen, halten, 18. spec, bitten; 19. gen, singen; 20. spec. drängen or gen, dringen.

3.165 a. 1. bedenke, bedenkt, bedenken Sie! 2. zieh dich an, zieht euch an, ziehen Sie sich an! 3. lies, lest, lesen Sie! 4. sei still, seid still, seien Sie still! 5. nimm, nehmt, nehmen Sie! 6. schreibe..ab, schreibt ..ab, schreiben Sie..ab! 7. bitte, bittet, bitten Sie! 8. koche, kocht, kochen Sie! 9. freue dich, freut euch, freuen Sie sich! 10. klingle, klingelt, klingeln Sie!
b. ich bitte/danke; present indicative.
c. Erledige/mache die Arbeit sofort! 2. Kümmere/bemühe dich darum selbst. 3. Opfere/widme dieser Arbeit mehr Zeit! 4. Formuliere/(drücke)deine Bitte anders(aus)! 5. Sei/(komme) pünktlich (an)! 6. Hilf/(steh)deiner Mutter (bei)! 7. Sieh den Film an und lies auch das Buch!

8. (Male)/kopiere das Bild (ab)! 9. (Nimm)/verliere Gewicht (ab)! 10. Ärgere/(rege) dich nicht darüber (auf)!

3.17

3.171 a. 1. Er hat sich einen neuen Anzug machen lassen. 2. Ich habe das nicht gekonnt. 3. Wir sind morgens immer sehr früh aufgestanden. 4. Der Chauffeur hat den Wagen in die Garage gefahren. 5. Ich habe ihn nicht danach fragen können. 6. Hast du ihn kommen sehen? 7. Wir sind nicht vor 6 Uhr abegefahren. 8. Der Schnee ist geschmolzen. 9. Du hast es nicht zu glauben brauchen. 10. Woher haben Sie das gewußt?

b. 1. Der Student ist dem Professor begegnet/hat den P. getroffen. 2. Die Polizei hat den Dieb verfolgt/ist dem D. gefolgt. 3. Das Kind ist an den Hund herangegangen/hat sich dem H. genähert. 4. Der Radfahrer ist dem Fußgänger ausgewichen/hat den F. überholt. 5. Der Besucher hat sich entfernt/ist weggegangen. 6. Das Publikum ist aufgestanden/hat sich erhoben.

c. 1. Das Auto ist um die Ecke gebogen. Der Wind hat die Bäume gebogen. 2. Er hat ihr auf den Fuß getreten. Er ist aus dem Haus getreten. 3. Er hat ein schwarzes Pferd geritten. Er ist auf dem Pferd geritten. 4. Wir sind nach Mainz umgezogen. Vor dem Essen habe ich mich umgezogen. 5. Das Mädchen ist durchs Zimmer getanzt. Das Ballett hat heute getanzt.

d. haben: 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8; sein: 3, 6, 9.

3.172 a. In the same manner as German.

b. 1. Das Haus hatte lange gebrannt; es war schließlich ganz ausgebrannt. 2. Die Blumen hatten den ganzen Sommer geblüht; im Herbst waren sie verblüht. 3. Sie hatte am Bett des Kranken gewacht, der nicht aufgewacht war. 4. Die Tür war zugeschlagen. Er hatte die Tür wütend zugeschlagen. 5. Die Arbeit hatte mich ermüdet. Ich war sehr schnell ermüdet. 6. Die Gläser waren zerbrochen. Sie hatte das Glas zerbrochen. 7. Sie hatten den Brief verbrannt. Nasses Holz war schlecht verbrannt. 8. Das heiße Öl hatte in der Pfanne gespritzt. Es war herausgespritzt. 9. Er hatte verreisen müssen; er hatte keine Geschäftsreise machen können. 10. Sie war an Grippe erkrankt. Dann hatte sie lange gekränkelt.

c. 1. Er hatte zuvor ein Auto besessen. 2. Seine Mutter war 1925 gestorben. 3. Sie hatte ihm nicht schreiben dürfen. 4. Er hatte nicht gehen wollen, da sie hiergeblieben war. 5. Sie hatte ihn erschreckt. Er war schnell weggerannt. 6. Warum hatte er uns nicht fragen können? 7. Sie waren lange krank gewesen. 8. Wir hatten ihn auf der Bühne singen und tanzen sehen. 9. Dann warst du Lehrer geworden und hattest geheiratet. 10. Nachdem sie eingestiegen waren, war der Zug abgefahren.

3.173 a. If the future tense is introduced at a later stage and if the modal wollen has been learned earlier as 'want to,' little interference will occur. Translation exercises will combat the interference.

b. 1. Ich werde mich damit nicht einverstanden erklären. 2. Er wird mit uns zum Rathaus gehen und für uns verhandeln. 3. Sie werden nie pünktlich sein und immer zu spät kommen. 4. Morgen werde ich ihn danach fragen, und er wird mir antworten müssen. 5. Wie wird man das erklären, damit es alle verstehen werden? 6. Sie werden nicht gern allein sein, denn sie werden sich fürchten. 7. Er wird sehen, daß wir recht behalten werden. 8. Sie wird zum Arbeitsamt (gehen) müssen und wird sich dort melden. 9. Wie wirst du das nur schaffen und bewältigen können? 10. Heute werden wir viel zu tun und zu besprechen haben.

3.174 a. It is rarely possible to predict the completion of actions or events in the future.

b. Some textbooks teach no future perfect at all. 1. Some textbooks do not mention its rare use; some do. 2. Those textbooks which introduce it do so most often in connection with the perfect and past perfect. 3. Exercises are primarily transformations.

3.175 a+b. Since the two subjunctive forms are based on the only synthetic and inflected forms, there are none left for a past expression of the subjunctive. Same in English.

c. 1. Er sei krank gewesen. 2. Sie wären nicht gern dorthin gegangen. 3. Ich hätte sie gesehen und begrüßt. 4. Sie hätten sich darüber gefreut. 5. Sie habe es nicht verstehen können. 6. Du hättest ihm einen Brief schreiben sollen. 7. Sie seien immer zu spät gekommen. 8. Ich sei vor dem Lärm erschrocken. 9. Sie hätten nicht zu arbeiten brauchen. 10. Sie sei dann Ärztin geworden.

3.18 a. Such structures would have a great amount of redundancy.

b. No, the statement is wrong. In both languages, particularly in technical and scientific writings, the passive voice abounds since the actor can be omitted.

3.181 a. Practically the total morphology of German has to be mastered. It is not accidental that the passive voice is most frequently taught at the very end of the first year course.

b. 1. Die Kinder wurden vom Vater im Garten gesehen. 2. Ein neues Buch wird mir von ihm gekauft werden. 3. Das Feuer wurde durch einen starken Wind verursacht. 4. Blumen sind der Freundin von ihnen zum Geburtstag geschenkt worden. 5. Ich wurde von dem Arbeiter um eine Zigarette gebeten. 6. Darauf wurde nicht geachtet. 7. Dem Gastgeber ist von den Freunden gedankt worden. 8. Während des Essens wurde viel gelacht. 9. Wir werden von euch nicht so bald wiedergesehen. 10. Viel Schönes wird von ihnen auf der Reise erlebt worden sein.

c. 1. Mir wurde von der Medizin sofort geholfen. 2. Das ganze Haus wurde mit Blumen geschmückt. 3. Im Lager wurde viel gewartet und gefroren. 4. Die Möbel werden aus dem Haus entfernt. 5. Die Stadt war im Krieg zerstört worden. 6. Sie werden darauf vorbereitet werden. 7. Es ist das beste Buch des Jahres genannt worden. 8. In Deutschland wird viel gearbeitet. 9. Sie wurden gebeten, sich beim Direktor zu melden. 10. Er wurde gefragt, wann seine Arbeit geprüft werden konnte.

d. 1. von der; 2. von dem; 3. von einer; 4. von dem; 5. durch einen; 6. von unserem; 7. durch einen; 8. von einer; 9. durch das; 10. durch die.

3.182 a. Since werden is structurally a future auxiliary and the modals require the same sentence structure, the approach is practical.

b. 1. He must have been asked by her. Sie muβ ihn gefragt haben. 2. These words are supposed to be learned by students soon. Die Schüler sollen diese Wörter bald lernen. 3. The book will have to be bought. Man wird das Buch kaufen müssen. 4. She will not be asked by us again. Wir werden sie nicht noch einmal bitten. 5. He will have to be brought to the hospital. Man wird ihn ins Krankenhaus bringen müssen. 6. That cannot be expected of him. Man kann das nicht von ihm erwarten. 7. Much work should be done here by the employees. Die Angestellten sollen hier viel arbeiten. 8. The house must have been sold already. Man muβ das Haus schon verkauft haben. 9. That cannot have been allowed of the children. Man kann das den Kindern nicht erlaubt haben. 10. They did not want to be recognized. Man sollte sie nicht erkennen.

3.183 a. Constructions with bekommen and erhalten can be taught with the passive, since they equal English 'to get.' All other structures are complicated and should be taught in the second year at a college level.

b. 1. Das Buch liest sich gut/läβt sich gut lesen/ist gut lesbar. 2. Die Gäste bekommen Wein angeboten. 3. Dieser Plan ist nicht auszuführen/ausführbar/kommt nicht zur Ausführung/läβt sich nicht ausführen. 4. Das Haus ist nach seinen Plänen zu bauen. 5. Meine Uhr läβt sich vom Uhrmacher reparieren/ Ich bekomme m.U. v.U. repariert/Meine Uhr ist v.U. reparierbar/zu reparieren. 6. Seine Doktorarbeit lieβ sich veröffentlichen/Er bekam s.D. veröffentlicht/S.D. gelangte zur Veröffentlichung. 7. Diese Speise ist nicht lange haltbar. 8. Ihre Befürchtungen bewahrheiteten sich/ lieβen sich bewahrheiten. 9. Der Patient läβt sich operieren/ kommt zur Operation/ist operierbar. 10. Seine Angst verstärkte sich.

3.19 a. 1. Groβvater konnte nicht lesen und schreiben. 2. Schneit oder regnet es? 3. Sie wurde sowohl als Hexe verurteilt als auch auf dem Scheiter verbrannt. 4. Sie wollte weder essen noch trinken. 5. Sie hat nicht nur angerufen sondern auch Blumen geschickt. 6. Peter hat sie auf der Straβe gesehen aber nicht gegrüβt. 7. Unser Haus muβ nicht nur renoviert sondern auch neu gestrichen werden. 8. Man kann ihm weder alles glauben noch ihm Geheimnisse anvertrauen. 9. Er ist mit dem Auto gereist oder mit dem Zug gefahren. 10. Ich habe ihn weder erreichen noch seine Adresse finden können.

b. weder...noch, aber nicht.

3.2

3.21 a. Usually, elementary textbooks dwell extensively on the forms, yet very little on the use of tenses.

b. 1. Vor einer Woche besaβ er sein Auto noch. (7b, II) 2. Gehen wir bald zu Oma? (6, I) 3. Sie winkt mir jeden Morgen zu, wenn ich vorbeigehe. (1, I) (11/7a, III)

4. Wir bereiteten noch das Essen, als er ankam. (III, 11). 5. Erst nachdem er die Brücke überquert hatte, merkte er, daβ er seine Brieftasche vergessen hatte. (IV, III, IV) 6. Bevor ich ins Büro fahre, gehe ich zur Bank (1/5, I) 7. Möchtest du einen Happen? Nein, ich habe schon gegessen. (5/10, I, II) 8. Also hat er es doch verkauft? Ich möchte wissen warum. (8/1, II, 1) 9. Sie hatte ihn oft gesehen, bevor er wegging. (13/1, IV/III) 10. Die Kinder sind so laut. Sie stören mich. (1/2, I).

3.211 a. English present and present perfect progressive, future and emphatic present are translated into German present tense.

b. 1. He is no longer working here. (3) 2. I have been working here for three years. (4) 3. We will stay here a few minutes longer. (5) 4. I hope he will not mention the accident. (1/5) 5. No, he is not coming here any more. (3) 6. We meet him every day at the bus stop. (1) 7. He is just eating his lunch. (3) 8. He has been asking us for weeks. (4) 9. How long have you been waiting? (4) 10. You do indeed work hard! (2)

3.212 a. ---

b. ---

3.213 a. When morphology is taught, such exercises can be useful to practice forms. However, after the forms are mastered, the use of tenses should be illustrated by context.

b. Fairy tales are good reading materials.

3.214 a. All time modifiers denoting past events should be introduced in the context of the use of tenses.

b. 1. How long have you been working on it? (EPF, 4, I).
2. Last week I saw her in the opera. (POT, 7a, II).
3. He can wait for that for a long time. (EPF, 1, I).
4. You also shopped there often. (EPF, 7a, II).
5. A week ago today he had the operation. (POT, 7a, II).
6. He will have to start the preparations soon. (POT, 5, I).
7. He has already often complained about it. (UPT, 10 II).
8. No, I have never been in Paris. (UPT, 10, II).
9. That was so long ago. (UPT, 1, I). 10. Do you think he'll ever ask you about it? (EPF, 5,I). 11. Yes, she indeed fought with him all the time. (EPF, 7a, II).
12. He won't take his exam until next year. (POT, 5, I).
13. I thought about it for a long time. (EPF, 7a, II).
14. He never doubted that. (UPT, 7a, II). 15. Can the children go play now? (POT, 1, I).

3.215 a. No, the phrase 'to be going to' is used frequently.

b. 1. Er wird um 12 Uhr in Berlin angekommen sein. 2. Ich schicke es dir nächste Woche. 3. Er wird unter diesen Umständen nicht zurückkommen. 4. Bis heute abend werden sie die Straβe freigemacht haben. 5. Wirst du das allein schaffen können? 6. Er sucht es morgen. 7. Sie werden mich nie wiedersehen. 8. Sie macht ihre Prüfung bald. 9. Er wird Dienstag darüber informiert sein. 10. Ich werde ihn bestimmt daran erinnern.

3.22

3.221 a. No.

b. After mood phrases such as 'believe, assume, guess; it is probable, possible, conceivable'; with adverbs, such

as 'maybe, possibly.'

3.222 a. All German mood modifiers have English equivalents.
b. nur 'only' in imperatives and wishes.

3.223 a. 1. Wir müssen; 2. Wir konnten d.U. nicht länger zuhören. 3. Er hatte..fahren wollen. 4. Ich soll..übergeben. 5. Ich mag d.F. nicht. 6. Dürfen Sie.. d.L.betreten? 7. Wir sollten s.d.H. verlassen. 8. Sie möchte jetzt nichts essen. 9. Wollten Sie mit ihm sprechen? 10. Die Polizei muβ d.V. helfen.
b. 1. Diese Tatsachen werden (können, mögen) umstritten sein. 2. Er will sie noch nie gesehen haben. 3. Dort kommt sie; sie kann d.T. nicht vergessen haben. 4. Der Mann muβ mich m.j. verwechselt haben. 5. Sie werden (können) nicht dazu gezwungen worden sein. 6. Er kann (wird) den Brief noch nicht gelesen haben. 7. D.G. sollen n.M. angekommen sein. 8. D.B. können (werden) e.g. erlassen worden sein. 9. Er wird (mag) das Problem unlösbar finden. 10. Sie werden (mögen, können) es i.d. Z. gelesen haben.

3.2231 a. Since the distinction is similar in English and German, English examples can be used to illustrate the concept.
b. Particularly with modals, contextual indicators are very important. Practicing sentences with larger contexts will illustrate the semantics.

3.2232 a. 1. The book is said to be completely sold out. (S). 2. He who wants to become a doctor must study Latin. (O). 3. He cannot have been in America. (S). 4. She claims to have lived here for years. (S). 5. You are to leave me alone. (O). 6. He could not be interrogated. (O). 7. They may have found it incomprehensible. (S). 8. He wants to be informed about it. (S). 9. They were not able to travel to Africa. (O). 10. How old can he have been at the time of his father's death (S)?
b. 1. Es ist Licht in seinem Zimmer; er wird (kann, könnte, dürfte, sollte, muβ, müβte) zu Haus sein. (S). 2. Er will das Angebot abgelehnt haben. (S). 3. Sie hatten den Gast nicht begrüβen können. (O). 4. Sie hätten mehr Vernunft haben sollen. (S). 5. Sie sollen sehr reich sein. (S). 6. Sie hätten uns vorher (an)rufen können. (S). 7. Kannst du dich daran erinnern? (O). 8. Sie mag (wird, dürfte könnte, kann) hübsch gewesen sein, als sie jung war. (S). 9. Du muβt das auf jeden Fall tun. (O). 10. Kinder sollen gesehen aber nicht gehört werden. (O).

3.223 a. Delete: 1.; 3.; 5.; 6.; 7.; 8.; 9.
b. 1. weiβ; 2. kennt; 3. konnten; 4. weiβt; 5. kannte; 6. kannten, konnten; 7., wuβte; 8. wissen, kann; 9. kannte, konnte; 10. gekannt, gewuβt.

3.2234 a. 1. Du sollst ihm das Buch kaufen! 2. Ihr müβt mir d.B. geben! 3. Sie sollen sich e.N.d. machen! 4. Du muβt mir m.L. kochen! 5. Wollt ihr ihm e.e.B. schreiben! 6. Ihr sollt nicht i. streiten! 7. Du muβt aufhören..! 8. Du sollst i.f.u.h. sein! 9. Ihr müβt j.m.e.A. anfangen! 10. Du sollst i.d.s.T. wegnehmen!

b. 1. Darf (Dürfte) ich Sie um e.G. bitten? 2. Können (Könnten) Sie mir sagen..? 3. Womit kann (könnte, dürfte) ich ihnen dienen? 4. Darf (Dürfte) er Sie n.d.A. fragen? 5. Dürfen (Dürften) wir um 7 Uhr kommen? 6. Dürfen (Dürften) w.d.u.e.g.R. bitten? 7. Können (Könnten, Möchten) Sie d.W.z.P. beschreiben? 8. Könnt (Könntet) i.i.b.r.d. informieren? 9. Können (Könnten, Möchten) Sie mir erzählen, ..? 10. Kannst (Könntest, Möchtest) du ihnen helfen?

3.2235 a. 1. will; 2. möchte; 3. Mögen; 4. Möchtest; 5. will; 6. gemocht; 7. will; 8. mochte; 9. wollen; 10. möchtest.

b. 1. brauchen; 2. brauchen; 3. dürfen; 4. kann; 5. braucht; 6. darf; 7. brauche; 8. müssen; 9. kann; 10. muß.

c. 1. Sie brauchen ihn nicht zu beleidigen; Sie sollten ihn eher bemitleiden. 2. Diese Tatsachen sollten nicht vergessen werden. 3. Du mußt nicht vergessen, daß sie nicht mitmachen durften. 4. Er braucht ihr kein Geschenk zu senden. 5. Wir brauchen nicht sofort zu gehen, aber wir sollten nicht zu lange bleiben. 6. Er kann die Verabredung nicht wieder vergessen haben. Sie muß in seinem Kalender notiert sein. 7. Sie müssen ihn überhaupt nicht verstanden haben. 8. Du darfst Energie nicht verschwenden. 9. Er kann es nicht rechtzeitig berichtet haben. 10. Er ist alt genug. Er braucht nicht um Erlaubnis zu bitten.

d. 1. Du hast es mir zu glauben. 2. Ich weiß, daß dieser Brief zu beantworten ist. 3. Darüber hatte er immer zu entscheiden. 4. Das ist genau zu überlegen. 5. Diese Besprechung ist zu vertagen.

3.224

3.2241 a. 1. Wenn er mich nicht gewarnt hätte, hätte mich das Auto überfahren. 2. Ich gäbe dir das Buch, wenn ich es fände. 3. Wenn es nicht immer wieder Kriege gäbe, wären die Menschen glücklich. 4. Wenn die Tür nicht verschlossen wäre, wären sie zu Haus. 5. Wenn der Student fleißig gewesen wäre, hätte er die Prüfung bestanden. 6. Wenn ich Zeit hätte, könnte ich hierbleiben. 7. Wenn das Wetter gut wäre, gingen wir spazieren. 8. Wenn er vorsichtig gewesen wäre, wäre er nicht bestohlen worden. 9. Wenn du gesund wärest, würde sich dein Freund nicht um dich kümmern. 10. Wenn sie früher kämen, gäbe es noch etwas zu essen.

b. 1. Wenn das Wetter schön wäre/Wäre das Wetter schön, hätte man...2. Wenn er keinen Bart hätte, sähe er...3. Hätte sie das Rezept genau beachtet , wäre...4. Hätte er nicht eingewilligt, hätten wir...5. Wenn ich an Ihrer Stelle wäre, hätte ich...6. Wären die Umstände erfreulicher, würden wir...7. Wenn der Arzt sie nicht beraten hätte... 8. Wenn du mir beistehen würdest, wäre ich...9. Wäre er besser vorbereitet, könnte...10. Hätte er es versprochen, hätte ich...

3.2242 a. 1. Hätten wir nur Zeit! 2. Wenn er nur auf mich warten würde! 3. Wenn ich nur kein defektes Auto gekauft hätte! 4. Hätte sie das nur gewußt! 5. Hätten wir ihn nur erreichen können! 6. Wenn er nur gesund wäre und nicht im Krankenhaus läge! 7. Könnte man nur sein Leben noch einmal beginnen! 8. Hätten Sie uns das nur gleich gesagt! 9. Verginge die Wartezeit nur schneller! 10. Hätte ich das nur nicht vergessen!

b. 1. Ich wünschte, ich könnte dir helfen. 2. Ich wünschte, die Woche hätte drei Sonntage. 3. Ich wollte, er hätte nicht so viel Bier getrunken. 4. Ich wünschte, die Operation läge hinter mir. 5. Ich wünschte, sie wären nicht so schnell gefahren. 6. Ich wollte, du könntest heute zu Haus bleiben. 7. Ich wünschte, wir müßten weniger Steuern zahlen. 8. Ich wollte, er hätte es mir gleich erzählt. 9. Ich wünschte, sie bestünden nicht darauf, mich zu treffen. 10. Ich wollte, ich bekäme immer erfreuliche Nachrichten.

3.2243 a. 1. als ob du nicht wüßtest, worum es geht! 2. als wenn er Seide wäre. 3. als ob ich krank würde. 4. als ob man ihn bestrügen wollte. 5. als wenn du es noch nie gehört hättest. 6. als ob das Haus unbewohnt wäre. 7. als ob ihre Existenz in Gefahr wäre. 8. als ob das Geschäft besser ginge. 9. als ob eine von mir genommen worden wäre. 10. als wenn sie es unangenehm fänden.

b. 1. Er lebt, als wäre er ein Millionär. 2. Sie benahm sich, als wäre sie eine Mutter. 3. Der Ring sah aus, als wäre er Gold. 4. Er arbeitet, als wäre er eine Maschine. 5. Sie singt, als wäre sie eine Krähe.

c. 1. Er ißt mit solchem Heißhunger, als hätte er seit Tagen nichts mehr gegessen. 2. Es ist so unordentlich, als wären die Vandalen eingebrochen. 3. Der Ausländer spricht so gut, als wäre Deutsch seine Muttersprache. 4. Sie machten solchen Krach, als wäre ihr Leben in Gefahr. 5. Die Autos sausten so, als wenn sie die Schallmauer durchbrechen könnten.

3.2244 a. 1. der das übernehmen könnte. 2. den wir fragen könnten. 3. der nicht gemacht worden wäre. 4. der bereit gewesen wäre, es zu tun. 5. der seinem Vater gehören könnte.

b. 1. Hätte er wirklich kein Geld? 2. Wollte ich as wirklich tun? 3. Könnten sie ihn wirklich nicht besuchen? 4. Müßte man wirklich pünktlich ankommen? 5. Hätten sie das wirklich zu bestimmen?

c. 1. Er wäre beim Angeln beinah im Fluß ertrunken. 2. Während der Operation wäre sie fast gestorben. 3. Mein Suppe wäre beinah übergekocht. 4. Die Frau wäre beinah vom Auto umgestoßen worden. 5. Sie hätten ihn beinahe aus der Schule geworfen. 6. Du hättest beinah deinen Kaffee über meine Bücher gegossen. 7. Ich wäre vor Angst beinah in Ohnmacht gefallen. 8. Er wäre fast mit leeren Händen zurückgekehrt. 9. Du hättest heute früh fast deinen Zug versäumt. 10. Der Dieb wäre beinah von der Polizei gefangen worden.

3.225

3.2251 a. At a very early stage. Dialogues can be varied by exercises such as: "Was hat er gesagt?" "Er hat gesagt, er kann das Buch nicht lesen."

b. 1. der Vorschlag stamme von ihm; er halte ihn für vernünftig. 2. er sei gestern bei seinen Eltern gewesen und habe unseren Bruder getroffen. 3. Er könne sich nicht z.d.R. entschließen. 4. seine Freunde führen n.I. und kämen i.M. zurück. 5. sie bestünden darauf, daß er mitkomme. 6. l.J. seien sie i.S. gewesen und hätten s.T. verlebt. 7. er habe sich vorgenommen, hierzubleiben. 8. jetzt wisse er w.n., was

er machen solle. 9. seine Frau wolle ihren K.D. zeigen. 10. d.K. kennten i.H. n. und seien noch nie i.B. gewesen.

c. 1. wir kämen gerade recht. Er brauche Hilfe. 2. wir sollten ihm d.S. geben und d.Z. halten. 3. sie habe ihn n.n. gesprochen. 4. er werde sich f. unsere I. einsetzen. 5. wann ich das erledigen könne. 6. sie müsse aufpassen. Der Hund sei bissig. 7. ob ich mit d.U. rechnen könne. 8. sie werde sich bessern...9. er solle mich anrufen und m.B. geben. 10. was wir von d.A. hielten. 11. sie müßten s. zurückkehren. 12. sie habe sich zu viel vorgenommen. 13. er wolle sie nie verlassen. 14. bis wann sie bleiben könne. 15. er solle tief atmen u.d.L. anhalten. 16. du sollest s.z.i. gehen und d.G. zurückgeben. 17. wir behielten es für uns. 19. wie es ihr denn möglich gewesen sei. 20. wir hätten ihm s.P. zerstört.

3.2252 a. God bless you! Thank God! Be it resolved...

b. The forms are the same.

3.226 a. 1. Attention! Be careful while the train departs! (Noun) 2. All aboard! Close doors! (Inf.) 3. Stay healthy! Give my regards to your husband! (Imper.) 4. You should be ashamed! You must apologize! (Modals). 5. Drive slowly! Watch for detour! (Inf.) 6. Wake up! Get up! Get in line! Get dressed! (Past part.) 7. Be so kind and give me the book! (Present ind. act.) 8. Now we cook and wash dishes! (Present ind. pass.) 9. Slower and clearer! (Adj.) 10. You will be quiet now and sleep! (Fut. ind. act.) 11. Let's go! Let's ask him! Let's hurry! (Incl. speaker) 12. Be so kind and help me! (Pres. ind. act.) 13. Let's remember it and not forget it! (Incl. speaker). 14. You will now straighten up! (Modals). 15. Lights out! (haben/sein+inf+zu) 16. You've got to be quiet now! (haben/sein+inf+zu) 17. Work now! (Ind. pass.) 18. Answer! Open up! (Inf.) 19. Don't startle him with it! (Imper. fam.) 20. Let's get new furniture! (Incl. speaker).

3.23

3.231 a. In most situations, the actor or originator must be mentioned.

b. Not grammatically.

c. ---

3.232 a. 1. Heute wird mehr als früher telefoniert. 2. In dem neuen Kaufhaus wird gern eingekauft. 3. Damals ist viel Sport getrieben worden. 4. Die öffentlichen Verkehrsmittel werden von vielen Leuten benutzt. 5. In den Hörsälen wird lebhaft diskutiert. 6. Dafür wird viel Geld ausgegeben werden müssen. 7. Sonderangebote sollten besser ausgenützt werden. 8. Viele Glückwunschkarten werden zum Fest versandt. 9. Trotz aller Warnungen wird noch immer geraucht. 10. Das wurde ihm geglaubt.

b. 1. Im Deutschen werden Substantive großgeschrieben. 2. Die Postleitzahl wird links vor den Ort geschrieben. 3. Fünf Eier werden mit einem Pfund Zucker verrührt. 4. Der Schlüssel wird in den Anlasser gesteckt und der Motor gestartet. 5. Der Ofen wird vor dem Backen und Braten angewärmt. 6. Die elektische Leitung muß gut isoliert

werden. 7. Zitate werden in Anführungszeichen gesetzt. 8. 'Saal' wird mit zwei, nicht mit einem A geschrieben. 9. Diese Uhr muβ jeden Tag aufgezogen werden. 10. Vor dem Sonnenbad soll die Haut mit Öl geschützt werden.

c. 1. daβ das Problem schnell bereinigt wird. 2. daβ er ausgewiesen wurde. 3. daβ er sofort abgefunden wird. 4. daβ die Steuern abgeschafft werden. 5. daβ alle Reparaturen schnell ausgeführt werden. 6. daβ der Frieden bald geschlossen wird. 7. daβ die Verhandlungen abgebrochen worden sind. 8. daβ die Besprechungen wieder aufgenommen werden. 9. daβ die Löhne der Bergarbeiter um zehn Prozent erhöht werden. 10. daβ Dr. Müller zum Direktor ernannt wird.

3.24

3.241 a. 1. Er hat d.b.T. sehen wollen. 2. Sie hat m.d.A. schreiben helfen. 3. Sie hat ihn nicht gesehen, aber sie hat ihn singen hören. 4. Bald habe ich mir d.H. schneiden lassen. 5. Er hat n.d. zu fragen brauchen. 6. Wir sind gern m.i. tanzen gegangen. 7. Du hast nicht zu essen brauchen, wenn du nicht gewollt hast. 8. D.S. haben E. sprechen und lesen gelernt. 9. M.B. hat mch lange warten lassen. 10. Er ist uns bald besuchen gekommen.

b. 1. Er hat sein Auto von einem Mechaniker reparieren lassen. 2. Wir haben sie weinen hören. 3. Sie hatten länger zu Haus bleiben wollen. 4. Du brauchst heute nachmittag nicht zu kommen. 5. Er wird mir das Haus putzen helfen. 6. Er hatte alles bezahlen sollen. 7. Sie hat nie malen gelernt. 8. Der junge Mann half der Dame ihren Koffer tragen. 9. Sie blieben sitzen, als der Direktor eintrat. 10. Sie wird wetten wollen.

3.2411 1. Er versprach, sich bald darum zu kümmern. 2. Der Arzt befahl ihm, weniger zu rauchen. 3. Hast du ihre Erlaubnis erhalten, ihren Wagen zu nehmen? 4. Es ist unmöglich, ohne Geld zu leben. 5. Wir hatten schon vorige Woche erwartet, umziehen zu können. 6. Es tut mir leid, dich nicht darüber informiert zu haben. 7. Sie behauptet, für die Stellung ernannt worden zu sein. 8. Es ist nicht leicht, einen harten Winter zu durchleben. 9. Er glaubt, dieses Mal keine Fehler gemacht zu haben. 10. Warum hast du ihnen verboten, das Haus zu verlassen?

3.242 a. 1.=6; 2.=3,1; 3.=4,1,2; 4.=5; 5.=3,6; 6.=3,4; 7.=3,6; 8.=3,2; 9.=5; 10.=3,6,3.

b. 1. Sind meine Schuhe schon besohlt? 2. Der Gast wirkte betrunken. 3. Der Schaden war gleich behoben. 4. Mit diesem Haus sind viele Erinnerungen verbunden. 5. Sind sie auch eingeladen? 6. Das Haus wirkt unbewohnt. 7. Die Stadt ist von groβen Wäldern umgeben. 8. Die Bibliothek ist renoviert. 9. Er wirkt mit ihr versöhnt. 10. Ihre Koffer sind schon gepackt.

3.243 a. 1. Dieser Schluβ ist naheliegend. 2. Das Buch ist unterhaltend und belehrend zugleich. 3. An heiβen Tagen ist ein kaltes Bad erfrischend. 4. Ein gutes Buch ist geistanregend. 5. Diese Tabletten waren schmerzlindernd. 6. Der Lärm unserer Nachbarn ist sehr störend. 7. Man behauptet, Musik sei leistungssteigernd. 8. Ihre Hilflosigkeit war mitleiderregend. 9. Auspuffgase sind luftverunreinigend. 10. Kräutertee ist blutreinigend.

b. 1. Lange Spaziergänge sind für alte Leute ermüdend. 2. Seine Kritik wirkte lähmend auf den Arbeitseifer. 3. Die Todesstrafe soll auf Kriminelle abschreckend wirken. 4. Die Schicksalsschläge waren für ihn entmutigend. 5. Seine Ungepflegtheit wirkte auf uns abstoßend. 6. Diese Arbeit ist für mich zu sehr anstrengend. 7. Die Rede wirkte auf die aufgeregten Zuhörer beruhigend. 8. Die Menge des Materials war für die Studenten verwirrend. 9. Deine Bemerkung ist für die Freunde beleidigend gewesen. 10. Seine schlechte Laune wirkte auf unsere Festtagsstimmung lähmend.

3.3

3.31 a. 1. müssen..aufbrechen; 2. sieht blaß aus; 3. hätten.. befragt werden müssen; 4. war...erschütternd; 5. war.. eine bekannte Schauspielerin; 6. ist...besprochen worden; 7. hat...gehen lassen; 8. fahre...ab; 9. rannte; 10. muß... arbeiten.

b. zeitig, blaß, wirklich, schwer; 2. schreiend; 3. ungehindert.

3.311 a. Because languages have abundant means to indicate precise and extensive meaning.

b. All human capacities can be expressed by uncomplemented verbs: sehen, hören, schmecken, riechen, gehen, denken, etc. When these verbs are complemented, their meaning is narrowed to a specific object.

3.312 a. Because underlying the infinitive construction is another sentence: Ich höre ihn. Er singt.=Ich höre ihn singen.

b. 1. Es ist schwer, Kinder richtig zu erziehen. 2. Es ist wichtig, das Gelernte täglich zu wiederholen. 3. Der Student beginnt, für die Prüfung zu arbeiten. 4. Er freut sich (darauf), seine Freunde wiederzusehen. 5. Es ist nicht immer leicht, sich selbst zu beherrschen. 6. Wir planen, eine Reise nach Europa zu unternehmen. 7. Er bemühmt sich (darum), nach Schulabschluß eine Anstellung zu finden. 8. Sie erstrebte, die Dichtersprache besser zu verstehen. 9. Es war für uns ein hoher Genuß, dieses Museum zu besuchen. 10. Die Leute wünschen, das Konzert bald wiederzuhören.

3.313 a. If the predicate contains the verbs haben, sein, werden, scheinen, klingen, wirken or aussehen, the past participle belongs to the predicate.

b. 1. fragte (betrübt); 2. sind...ausverkauft; 3. haben... vermietet; 4. klang verlogen; 5. öffnete (erschrocken); 6. soll...durchgebraten werden; 7. scheint...beliebt; 8. schlich (ungesehen); 9. rief (besorgt); 10. stellte (unerschrocken).

3.314 1. war...erhebend; 2. scheint intelligent, bezaubernd; 3. sprach...ein (beruhigend); 4. war...entscheidend; 5. wirkt...beleidigend; 6. bemühte (rührend); 7. wirkt... erschütternd; 8. schrie (drohend); 9. berichteten (weinend); 10. konnten...entschließen (zögernd).

3.315-3.316 a. 1. zufrieden; 2. ein Kreis, rund; 3. blaß, krank (unerfreulich); 4. müde; 5. Vater; 6. (freundlich); 7. gelb, rot; 8. unartig, undankbar; 9. eine gute Kundin, (tatsächlich); 10. still, (geheim).

b. 1. alone; 2. alone, +inf+zu, +past part, +pres part, +adj; 3. +inf+zu, +past part, +pres part, +adj +noun; 4. alone, +inf+zu; 5. alone, +past part, +pres part, +adj; 6. +inf+zu, +past part; 7. alone, +past part, +pres part, +adj; 8. +inf, +past part, +pres part, +adj, +noun.

3.317 1. werden...gefragt werden: future passive = 2 werden +past part; 2. hätte...erwarten sollen: past expression of subjunctive with modal = 2 inf; 3. werden...abkaufen: future = werden + inf; 4. ist...gezeigt worden; perfect passive = sein + 2 past part; 5. hat...abgeliefert werden müssen: perfect passive with modal = haben + past part + 2 inf; 6. kam, sah siegte: present active = finite verbs alone; 7. wirkte klug, besonnen, vernünftig: simple past active = wirken + predicate adjectives; 8. sollen...erlebt haben: simple past with modal = moal + inf perf; 9. ist... gewählt worden: perfect passive = sein + 2 past part; 10. hätte...geschehen dürfen: past expression of subjunctive = haben + 2 inf.

3.32 a. No.
b. 1. war; 2. muß; 3. trennt euch; 4. glaubt; 5. sollt; 6. war; 7. kennt; 8. hat; 9. nehmen; 10. planen.

3.33 a. 1. ungrammatical; 2. gramm; 3. gramm + change of meaning; 4. gramm; 5. ungram; 6. gramm + change; 7. gramm; 8. ungramm; 9. ungramm; 10. gramm.
b. 1. seem; 2. request; 3. watch; 4. live; 5. work; 6. must; 7. continue; 8. be; 9. have; 10. get.

3.331 1. +hum, +anim, +inan/abstract; 2. +hum, + inan, +inan/abstr; 3. +hum, +anim, +inan/abstr; +hum/abstr, -inan, -anim; 4. +hum/abstr; 5. +hum/abstr; 6. +hum/abstr, +anim, + inan; 7. hum/abstr, +inan; 8. +hum/abstr; -inan; 9. -hum/abstr, +inan; 10. +hum/abstr; -inan.

3.332 a. 1. er eine schäbige Dachkammer (in München); 2. sie ein Stück (ihres Apfels); 3. Wir ihn an sein Versprechen (schon im Mai); 4. Der Direktor die Angestellten um Geduld (des Betriebs); 5. Sie ihren Fehler (bei der Abrechnung); 6. Der Zug (am Bahnsteig um 9:45); 7. es (Letzten Winter drei Monate dauernd); 8. Meine Eltern in Hamburg (bei Verwandten); 9. Der Arbeiter nach dem Weg (mich zum Flughafen); 10. sich Hans mit Petra (Gestern).
b. 1. = 2 Er versteht Deutsch; 2. = 2(3) Ich erinnere ihn (an das Versprechen); 3. = 2(3) Sie verzeiht ihm (den Betrug) 4. = 1(2) Es hagelt (große Schloßen); 5. = 2 Wir besuchen ihn; 6. = 2 Sie erkranken an Grippe; 7. = 2 Er stahl ein Auto; 8. = 2 Hans liebt Grete; 9. 1/2 Das Auto fährt/Wir fahren nach Köln/Er fährt einen Audi; 10. = 2(3) Der Lehrer lehrt (das Kind) Deutsch.
c. 1. schneien, regnen, blühen; 2. sehen, fragen, lesen; 3. nennen, kosten, lehren; 4. nützen, schaden, folgen; 5. geben, kaufen, schreiben; 6. ernennen, erinnern, bitten; 7. helfen, danken, antworten; 8. warten, beruhen, rechnen.

3.3321 a. 'Direct Object.'
b. 1. D.A. beachtete den F.n. 2. D.Z. durchfuhr d. 8. 3. D.A. beschreibt sein L.; 4. Wir behängen die W. mit Bildern; 5. Sie belegte die O. mit Apfelscheiben. 6. Gestern durcheilten Soldaten undere S. 7. D.V. bedachte sein K.

nicht. 8. Er besingt die S. d.F. 9. U. durchlebte er das E. 10. D.n.B. behandelt eine junge L.

c. 1. Die Arbeiter sprengten die Brücke; sie sprang in die Luft. 2. Der Arzt legte das kranke Kind ins Bett; es lag sehr still. 3. Der Bauer tränkte die Kühe; sie tranken. 4. Mein Sohn verschwendete sein Geld; es verschwand schnell. 5. Der Sturm versenkte das Schiff; es versank im Ozean. 6. D.H. erschreckte das Kind; es erschrak und weinte. 7. Das Kind setzte die Puppe auf den Stuhl. Es saß noch immer da. 8. Du hängtest die Kleider in den Schrank. Sie hingen ordentlich. 9. Er stellte das Auto in den Schatten; später stand es in der Sonne. 10. Der Arbeiter fällte den Baum; er fiel laut.

d. 1. Einen Dummkopf, ihn; 2. die Verantwortung; 3. die Kosten Ihrer Dienste; 4. ihn, die Buchführung; 5. das Essen, hundert Mark; 6. ihre Pläne; 7. die Freunde; 8. ein Haus; 9. Unsere Koffer; 10. sie, große Sorge.

3.3322 a. 1. Der Fisch schmeckte den Kindern nicht. 2. Der Sohn widerspricht dem Vater. 3. Der Arzt empfiehlt dem Patienten eine Reise nach dem Süden. 4. Die Tochter gleicht der Mutter charakterlich. 5. Der Reisende dankt dem Beamten für die Auskunft. 6. Die Großmutter erzählt den Kindern eine Geschichte. 7. Der Dieb entkommt der Polizei nicht. 8. Der Lehrer redet dem Schüler Mut zu. 9. Der Verbrecher entläuft dem Gefängniswärter. 10. Der junge Mann schmeichelt dem hübschen Mädchen.

b. 1. mir, mir; 2. ihm, ihm; 3. dir, dir; 4. der Mutter, der Mutter; 5. dem Kranken, dem Kranken; 6. einem Menschen, einem anderen Menschen, einem anderen Menschen. 7. ihr, ihr; 8. uns; 9. jedem, jedem Kind; 10. mir, mir.

3.33221a. There are fewer reflexive predicates in English.

b. 1. Wir haben uns sehr über die Bemerkungen d.K. amüsiert. 2. Ich habe mich über seine U. geärgert. 3. Sie hat über die U.i.m.B. aufgeregt. 4. Die O. hat sich über das B.d.P. empört. 5. Ich habe mich sehr über deinen liebenswürdigen B. sehr gefreut. 6. Die E. entrüsten sich über die R.d.K. 7. Ich wundere mich nicht über das e.W. 8. Er sättigte sich an dem gestohlenen B. 9. Sie begeistert sich über den großen E. 10. Der staubige W. hat sich an einer kühlen L. gelabt.

c. 1. Können Sie (sich) e.A. (gedulden) warten? 2. D.B.d.D. befindet sich (ist) i.e.S. 3. Ich habe (mich) nicht (getraut) gewagt; 4. Es handelt sich (geht) um e.p.A. 5. Er hat sich n. l. besonnen (überlegt); 6. Die P. erhöhen sich (steigen) dauernd. 7. Ich habe mich entschlossen (beschlossen); 8. Der W. erstreckt sich (reicht) b.z.G. 9. Garantierst du (verbürgst du dich); 10. Er erhob sich (stand auf).

3.3323 1. Der Vater erlaubt seiner Tochter eine Europareise. 2. Der Gast bezahlt dem Ober die Rechnung. 3. Der Sieger reicht dem Besiegten die Hand. 4. Der Arzt verbietet deinem Bruder das Rauchen. 5. Der Verkäufer bringt dem Kunden ein neues Modell. 6. Der Forscher opfert der Wissenschaft seine Gesundheit. 7. Der stolze Vater zeigt den Gästen sein kleines Baby. 8. Der Räuber raubt dem Boten die Geldtasche. 9. Die Königin überreicht dem Nationalhelden einen Orden. 10. Die reiche Tante schickt ihrem armen Neffen

einen Scheck.

3.3324 1. D.A. erinnert sich oft an seine Heimat. 2. D.M. entließ d.B. aus seiner Stellung. 3. Mutter scheint Ruhe u.E. zu brauchen. 4. Wir kannten den Weg nicht. 5. D.S. schämt sich über seine F. 6. E.b.M. ist zu jedem V. fähig. 7. D.D. würdigt den B. mit keinem B. 8. Er steht wegen U. unter Verdacht und erkennt seine S. 9. D.K. sollten an die Liebe u.M. i.E. denken. 10. D.S. waren sicher, einen großen E. zu erzielen.

3.3325 a. 1. erwogen; 2. Man hat sich entschlossen; 3. ausdrücken; 4. klären; 5. abschließen; 6. erstaunt; 7. eingesetzt; 8. gefährdet; 9. beanspruchen; 10. besprochen.

b. 1. nach; 2. an, an; 3. auf; 4. aus; 5. Mit; 6. auf; 7. auf; 8. nach; 9. auf; 10. über; 11. aus; 12. zu; 13. gegen; 14. zum; 15. mit; 16. über; 17. für; 18. mit; 19. für; 20. an.

c. 1. Jeder klagt über hohe Steuern. 2. Ich vertraue auf deine Ehrlichkeit und glaube an deinen Erfolg. 3. Würden Sie bitte einen Augenblick auf meine Koffer aufpassen? 4. Das Buch handelt (beschäftigt sich mit) Finanzen. 5. All seine Geschichten beruhen auf wahren Begebenheiten. 6. Du brauchst dich um deine Zukunft nicht zu sorgen. 7. Sie hatte sich kaum von ihrer Krankheit erholt, als er erkrankte. 8. Er beschränkt sich nie auf das Wesentliche. 9. Wir sprachen über den Wert guter Musik. 10. Niemand hat sie um Rat in dieser Angelegenheit gebeten.

3.333 1. S, AO, PO mit D, von D, über A: Er spricht mit ihr über die Oper von Beethoven. 2. S, AO: Sie spricht das Wort richtig aus. 3. S, AO, PO mit D: Du kannst es mit ihm besprechen. 4. S, DO; refl AO, DO, PO von D: Ich verspreche ihm ein Geschenk. Ich verspreche mir Erfolg von der Konferenz. 5. S, AO, PO an A: Wir e sie an das Buch. 6. S, AO refl, PO an A: Erinnerst du dich an Hans? 7. S: Das Geld verschwand. 8. S, PO auf A: Wir warten auf den Freund. 9. S, PO: Er hört der Musik zu. 10. S, DO: Das Haus gehört ihm.

3.4
3.41
3.411 a. 1. nördlich (4), stark (4); 2. erst (4), rechts (2), dann (1), geradeaus (3), am besten (4); 3. Freundlicherweise (2), sofort (1); 4. besonders (1), unangehm (4); 5. Überall (2), dermaßen (2), jetzt (1), kaum (1); 6. mehrmals (2), dringend (4), baldmöglichst (3); 7. kürzlich (2), schwer (4), blindlings (2), quer (1); 8. unerhört (4), lange (2), bestenfalls (2), nur (1), kurz (4); 9. laut (4) diskutierend (4), draußen (1); 10. steil (4), abwärts (2), geradewegs (3).

b. 1. D.W. ist hoch, d.U. ist höher, d.K. ist am höchsten. 2. S.S. ist hübsch, d.F. ist hübscher, m.K. ist am hübschesten. 3. V. raucht wenig, d. B. raucht weniger, d.S.r. am wenigsten. 4. D.j.M. singt gut, d.S. singt besser, d.O. singt am besten. 5. D.J. schreibt interessant, d.P. schreibt interessanter, d.A.s. am interessantesten.

3.412 1. Jeden Abend hat sie i.a.; 2. Eines Tages besuchte R. i.G. 3. Alle Jahre wieder feiern wir d.W. 4. Eines Morgens erwachten sie i.e.v.W. 5. Das Eintrittsgeld war dieser F.n.w. 6. Alle zwei Monate sehen wir u.b.e.K. 7. Des Abends sollte man w.f.u.m.l. 8. Drei Zentner wiegt d.K. 9. Fünf Stunden standen wir Schlange. 10. Sieben Seiten war i.B.

3.413 1. Um 7 Uhr, mit seinem Wagen, ins Büro; 2. mit vollem Mund, während des Essens; 3. Trotz des Regens, ohne Regenschirm, aus dem Haus; 4. Im nächsten Jahr, mit Eva; 5. Mit seinen Freunden, zum Skifahren, in die Schweiz; 6. In unserer Firma, von Dieben; 7. im Jahre 1984, in Australien; 8. Weder mit viel Geld noch all seinen Bemühungen, am Genfer See; 9. Nach dem Diner, von dem m. Butler, in der Bibliothek; 10. ohne Rücksicht auf die Folgen.

3.42
3.421 a. 1. neben/bei ihrem (1); 2. über unserer (1); 3. in der (1); 4. aus dem (3); 5. von hier zu dem (3/2); 6. an die frischgestrichene (2); 7. unter das (2); 8. von unserem (3); 9. hinter dem (1); 10. zu meiner, von seiner (2/3); 11. vor das (2); 12. aus der (3); 13. Unter den Gästen (1); 14. auf den Kopf (2); 15. nach Paris (2); 16. bei unserem Einwohnermeldeamt (1); 17. in der Grammatik (1); 18. zwischen die beiden Streitenden (2); 19. von München bis zum Chiemsee (3/2); 20. über den Schreibtisch (2); 21. vor/an der Haustür; 22. an die Tafel (2); 23. neben/bei einander (1); 24. hinter/vor/neben das Haus (2); 25. Von seinem Büro (3) zu seinen Freunden (2).

b. 1. her, hin; 2. herein; 3. hinüber; 4. hinüber, herüber; 5. hinaus, hinein; 6. herunter; 7. hinaus, hinunter; 8. hinüber hinein; 9. hinunter; 10. herunter.

3.422 a. 1. in; 2. zu, um; 3. Nach; 4. in; 5. nach; 6. zum, in; 7. nach, um; 8. zu; 9. in, nach; 10. In, nach.

b. 1. vom; 2. für; 3. für; 4. um; 5. aus; 6. vom; 7. für; 8. auf; 9. von; 10. aus.

c. 1. Am, bei; 2. um, um; 3. An, im, im, im; 4. Am, am, zum; 5. Zu; 6. am, 7. In; 8. um; 9. zu, am; 10. im, an.

3.423 a. 1. absichtlich; 2. auswendig; 3. glücklicherweise; 4. anders; 5. vergebens; 6. mindestens; 7. gern; 8. lieblos; 9. teilweise; 10. brieflich.
b. 1. sehr; 2. ungewöhnlich; 3. fast/beinahe; 4. allzu; 5. ziemlich; 6. nur; 7. recht; 8. kaum; 9. fast/beinahe; 10. genug.

3.424 a. 1. aus; 2. vor; 3. vor; 4. Aus; 5. vor; 6. vor; 7. aus, aus; 8. Aus; 9. Aus; 10. vor.
b. 1. mit ausgestreckter Hand; 2. mit der rechten Hand; 3. Mit der neuen Brille; 4. Mit Brille; 5. mit einer Maske; 6. mit Maske; 7. mit einem falschen Bart; 8. mit Bart; 9. mit schuldbewußt gesenktem Kopf; 10. mit dem Kopf.

3.425- 3.427 a. 1. Zu, ohne; 2. Trotz guten; 3. ohne; 4. Bei der; 5. zur; 6. Ohne große; 7. zu seinem eigenen; 8. Trotz, bei offenem; 9. Ohne, bei zu vielem; 10. bei.
b. 1. Er ist nie hilfsbereit; trotzdem werde ich ihn um seine Hilfe bitten (2). 2. Sie haben seinen Wagen nur zum Spaß gestohlen (1). 3. Ich kann diese Kiste nicht ohne Hilfe tragen (3). 4. Trotz seiner guten Vorsätze trank er weiter (2). 5. Man braucht zum guten Kochen Fantasie (1). 6. Sie war an der Reihe, mich anzurufen, aber ich rief sie trotzdem an (2). 7. Bei dieser Hitze ist es schwer, schnell zu laufen (3). 8. Trotz deiner guten Prüfung kann ich dir keine bessere Zensur als eine Drei geben (2). 9. Bei besserer Geschäftsführung könnte dieser Laden sehr erfolgreich sein (3). 10. Du brauchst zum Lesen besseres Licht (1).

3.428 a. 1. als; 2. als; 3. wie; 4. wie; 5. als; 6. wie, wie; 7. wie; 8. wie; 9. wie; 10. als.
b. 1. Der Weg wurde steiler und steiler/immer steiler. 2. Je mehr ich diese Symphonie höre, desto mehr mag ich sie. 3. Seine Arbeit ist weniger anspruchsvoll als ihre. 4. Sie freut sich ebensosehr auf Weihnachten wie sie. 5. Er war eher entmutigt als böse. 6. Die Lebensmittelpreise steigen höher und höher/immer höher. 7. Diese Methode ist komplizierter als die alte. 8. Die Vorbereitungen sind nicht weniger wichtig als die eigentliche Arbeit. 9. Er kam zu genau derselben Zeit an wie ich. 10. Sie könnte zehn Jahre älter als meine Mutter sein.

3.429 a. 1. bestimmt; 2. unbedingt; 3. allerdings; 4. auf jeden Fall; 5. tatsächlich; 6. zweifellos; 7. ja; 8. natürlich; 9. gewiß; 10. wirklich.
b. 1. Deine Hosen haben ja schon wieder einen Riß! 2. Erzähl mir, Mutti, wie hast du Vati eigentlich kennengelernt? 3. Warum hast du ihr denn nicht die Wahrheit gesagt? 4. Ich warte schon eine Stunde. Wo kann er nur sein? 5. Das ist ja ein Jammer! 6. Wir können überhaupt nichts dazu tun. 7. Glaube bloß nicht, sie werden dich verstehen! 8. Ich kann dein Auto nicht sehen. 9. Wie haben sie das eigentlich herausgefunden? 10. Was gibt es denn heute zum Abendessen?
c. 1. erst; 2. nur; 3. noch; 4. erst; 5. erst, noch nicht; 6. nur; 7. schon; 8. erst; 9. nur; 10. noch, erst; 11. schon, erst; 12. noch, noch; 13. noch, erst; 14. nur; 15. noch, schon, nur, erst.

3.43 a. 1. Nein, nicht; 2. nie; 3. keineswegs; 4. auf keinen Fall; 5. wirklich nicht; 6. Nein, überhaupt nicht; 7. nie mehr; 8. Im Gegenteil; 9. niemals; 10. gar nicht.

b. 1. Er kann es sich nicht leisten; 2. Es ist nicht klar; 3. Du brauchst heute d.P. nicht v.d.P. zu holen. 4. Man darf nicht b.r.L...5. Er spricht nicht und bewegt s.H. nicht. Er ist nicht g. 6. Sie sollen mit uns w.d.F. nicht n.E. fahren. 7. Würdest du ihm das bitte nicht erzählen? 8. Er braucht sich w. nicht sehr anstrengen. 9. Ich hatte ihn nicht gebeten, m.a. 10. Das war w.f.u. nicht überraschend.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. NOUN PHRASE

4.1

4.11 a. the slithy toves; in the wabe; the borogroves, the nome raths. It is possible that 'brillig' functions as noun ('Twas morning) or as a predicate adjective ('Twas cold).

b. 1. Zum Weihnachtsfest, er, alle seine Verwandten; 2. Er, ihr, einen eleganten Lederkoffer; 3. Vor zwei Tagen, wir, auf den postboten; 4. Das, der v.a.K.e.g. Film; 5. Bei u.g. Waldspaziergang, wir, frische Erdbeeren; 6. Ich, absolute k. Lust, mit s.s. Freunden in Frankreich, Kontakt; 7. Durch e. Skandal, der e.i.l.J.z.D.e.F. Müller, seines h. Amtes; 8. Jeder, ihm, Blumen; 9. Wo, du, diese b. a. Bluse; 10. Das, eine s.ü. Geschichte.

4.12 a. 1. Sein oder Nichtsein, das ist hier die Frage (same: infinitive). 2. Sein Trinken zerstört seine Gesundheit (infinitive vs. -ing-form). 3. Arm und Reich jubelte (same: nominalized adjectives). 4. Die Verletzten wurden ins Krankenhaus gebracht (nominalized adj. vs. adj.). 5. Gib mir das Kaputte! (nom. adj. vs. adj.) 6. Nicht dieses sondern jenes ist sein Haus (pronoun vs. determiner). 7. Schau die Kinder an! Die blonde Lachende ist meine Nichte (nom. adj. vs. adj.) 8. Er erklärte das Wie und Warum (same, but sg). 9. Gehen ist besser als Bleiben (same: infinitives). 10. Er lernte das durch sein Lesen (nom. inf. vs. -ing- form).

b. 1. Das Auf und Ab (prep); 2. das Geld (noun); 3. Sein dauerndes Singen (nom. inf.); 4. Das heitere (nom. adj.); 5. Was (interr. pronoun); 6. Das A und O (letters); 7. Sein Bekannter (nom. past part.) 8. Die Drei (number); 9. Kriegsversehrte (nom. past part.); 10. Jung und Alt (nom. adj.).

4.121 a. This approach puts English into Latin molds and is inappropriate, since English has lost the inflection. Paradigmatic order and the prepositions are useless without syntactic context.

b. By strict word order and by prepositions.

c. Only personal pronouns show gender when inanimate nouns are replaced by 'she'; 'the car,' 'the country,' 'the ship': 'she.'

4.122-4.123 a. 1. r -¨-; 2. e -n; 3. r -e; 4. e -en; 5. s ---; 6. s ---; 7. e - n; 8. s -¨-er; 9. e -en; 10. r -en; 11. s -e; 12. e -n; 13. e -n; 14. s -e; 15. r -e; 16. r -en; 17. e -en; 18. e -en; 19. r -en; 20. e -n; 21. e -n; 22. r -e; 23. e -nnen; 24. e -n; 25. s; 26. r ---: 27. e -en; 28. e Krematorien; 29. r -e; 30. r ---; 31. r -¨-e; 32. e -en; 33. e -¨-e; 34. r; 35. s ---; 36. s -er; 37. s; 38. r -en; 39. r -e; 40. e -en.

b.

GENDER	PLURAL MORPHEME	NUMBER	CLUE	EXAMPLES
der	/-n/	many	foreign	Kandidat, Demagoge, Agent
		some	Gmc-e	Knabe, Löwe, Funke
		c. 30	monos.	Ahn, Hirt, Mensch
		c. 10	el, er	Bauer, Muskel
	/-(¨)-ə/	many	monos.	Tisch, Stuhl, Hof
		some	ling	Jüngling, König
	/-¨-ər/	c. 10	monos.	Geist, Gott, Mann
	/-(¨)-/	many	-er	Magel, Garten, Vater
	/-s/	few	foreign	Chef, Park, Hindu
das	/-n/	c. 10	monos.	Auge, Bett, Herz
	/-(¨)-ə/	c. 40	monos.	Beil, Blech, Boot
		c. 20	-nis	Ereignis
	/-(¨)-ər/	most		Buch, Gespenst
	/-(¨)-/	many	-chen	Mädchen, Fräulein, Gitter, Mittel
	/-s/	many	foreign	Auto, Büro, Restaurant
die	/-n/	most	-ung	Frau, Lampe, Wohnung
	/-(¨)-ə/	c. 30	monos.	Braut, Angst, Wand
	/-(¨)-/	2	-er	Mutter, Tochter
	/-s/	few	foreign	Sauna, Kamera

c. 1. e/r; 2. e/s; 3. e/r/ 4. r/e; 5. r/e; 6. s/e; 7. r/e; 8. s/r; 9. r/s; 10. e/r; 11. r/s; 12. s/r; 13. r/s; 14. 4/e; 15. s/r; 16. r/s; 17. e/r; 18. s/e; 19. r/s; 20. r/e; 21. r/e; 22. e/r; 23. r/s; 24. r/s; 25. e/r; 26. s/r; 27. r/s; 38. r/e; 29. e/r; 30. r/s; 31. r/e; 32. e/s; 33. r/e; 34. r/s; 35. s/r; 36. e/r; 37. s/r; 38. e/s; 39. r/s; 40. r/s.

4.1231 a. 1. Rasen; 2. Gräben; 3. Bündnisse; 4. Morde; 5. Höfe; 6. Schüsse; 7. Äpfel; 8. Gänse; 9. Köpfe; 10. Mahle; 11. Säle; 12. Wände; 13. Türkinnen; 14. Nächte; 15. Dochte; 16. Öfen; 17. Einkünfte; 18. Paare; 19. Kräfte; 20. Jahre; 21. Jungen; 22. Söhne; 23. Füße; 24. Flüsse; 25. Bräute; 26. Muskeln; 27. Bögen; 28. Häute; 29. Laute; 30. Vögel.

b. 1. r Mangel; 2. r Name; 3. s Drama; 4. e Backe; 5. s Roß; 6. e Tür; 7. r Turm; 8. r Stuhl; 9. e Schnur; 10. e Luft; 11. r Schluck; 12. s Maß; 13. e Masse; 14. e Hindin; 15. r Hammer; 16. r Hund; 17. e Sünde; 18. s Pfund; 19. e Kunst; 20. r Löwe; 21. s Dorf; 22. e Axt; 23. r Arm; 24. e Tochter; 25. e Föhre; 26. r Führer; 27. e Fähre; 28. r Genuß; 29. r Genosse; 30. s Volk.

4.124 a. The terms are useful for English, but since the case inflection in German belongs to the syntactic use of the nouns, the grammatical terms 'acc,' 'dat' and 'gen' should be maintained although they are by no means ideal.

b. 1. Der Verkäufer, den Kunden, einen fremden Herrn. 2. inneren Frieden, den Glauben, den Willen; 3. meines Vetters, meines Neffen; 4. seinen Namen, seine Adresse. 5. zwei Franzosen, drei Griechinnen; 6. einen Funken, unseres/unserer Nachbarn; 7. einen Jungen, ein Mädchen; 8. Löwen, Schlangen, Affen, Bären, Giraffen, Hunde, Pferde; 9. seines Herzens, diesen Gedanken; 10. allen Leuten, kleinen Kindern, Ausländern, Damen, Herren.

4.13

4.131 a. der: N sg der-nouns, D and G sg die-nouns; G pl. den: A sg der-nouns, D pl. dem: D sg der- and das-nouns. des: G sg der- and das-nouns. das: N, A sg das-nouns. die: N, A sg die-nouns, N,A pl.

b. 1. solche, diese; 2. welchem, die; 3. jeder, jede; jedem, dieser; 5. des, jene; 6. welches, diesen; 7. Jedem, jedem, der; 8. Manche, solche; 9. dieses, jenes; 10. Welchen, jenen, den.

4.132 a. 1. Ein Fremder, einen Polizisten, einem Weg; 2. Ein Auto eines G., einer Fabrik. 3. Ein Kleid, einem j.M. 4. Ein Brief, einem Vetter, eine gute N.; 5. Ein Student, eine Vorlesung.

b. 1. deine; 2. Ihr, mein, Ihr; 3. seinen; 4. ihren/seinen; 5. unser; 6. ihrer; 7. euer; 8. meinen; 9. deinen; 10. eure.

4.14 a. 1. Was für Bücher; 2. Welcher Architekt; 3. Welche Nachrichten; 4. In was für einem Gebäude; 5. Was für einen Wert; 6. Die Bücher welches Autors; 7. Welchen Hut; 8. Mit was für einem Freund; 9. Was für Möbel; 10. Was für einen Mantel.

b. 1. prima (4); 2. entzückendes (3); 3. unterbrochene (2); 4. größere (1/5); 5. rote (1); 6. beste (1/6); 7. berühmteste (2/6); 8. mauve (4); 9. eleganten (1); 10. stärkere (1/5).

4.141 a. 1. gebratene, frischem; 2. italienisches, frisches, gemischte; 3. Heiße, aufgelöstem; 4. größter, schlimme; 5. langjährige, treue, kostbares; 6. roter, gelbes, grüne; 7. deutschen, französischen; 8. geringer, einheimische, importierten; 9. neuem; 10. liebe, großem; 11. wachsender, beschwichtigende; 12. menschlichem, technischem; 13. vielversprechender, großem; 14. ältestem; 15. frische, fette, große, frischen, dunkles; 16. schlechtem, kalte, nasse, starkem; 17. roter, gelber, grünem, geschickte, elegante; ;18. gesunder, frische, regelmäßige, gelegentlichen, behende; 20. Lieber, größtem.

b. 1. naheliegender; 2. überwältigenden; 3. zufriedenstellendem; 4. preiswerte, interessante; 5. häufige, starken.

c. 1. Vaters dauerndes Schimpfen; 2. Evas abgelegte Kleider; 3. von Mutters bester Freundin; 4. Müllers reizende Gäste; 5. mit Tante Ilses neuem Auto; 6. Professor Hansens neuestes Buch; 7. Onkel Ottos alter Regenmantel; 8. Herrn Schulzes jüngster Sohn; 9. mit Petras nettem Bruder; 10. Groβvaters geheimnisvolles Geschenkpaket.

4.142 a. /r/: der-nouns N det; die-nouns D, G det; pl G det. /n/: der-nouns A det, red, D red, G red, det; das-nouns D red, G det, red; die-nouns D, G red; pl N, A red, D det, red, G. red. /m/: der-nouns D det; das-nouns D det. /s/: das-nouns N, A det. /ə/: der-nouns N red; das-nouns N, A red; die-nouns N, A det, red; pl. N, A det.

b. 1. ruhiges, zentraler, amerikanischer; 2. letzten, ausländische, verschiedenen, deutschen; 3. schweren, Kölner, junge; 4. hoher, schwerbeladener, kleinen; 5. gestrigen, folgende, Junger groβes, möbliertes, eigenem, separatem; 6. Interessante, ausländische, kleinen, nächsten; 7. neues, bekannten; 8. schönes, neues viele groβe, breite, dunklem; 9. nächsten, gute, lieben, schönen; 10. neuem, groβe, schöner, nützlicher.

4.143 1. Mit einem solchen unfreundlichen Mann; 2. Manche alten Leute haben viele groβe Sorgen. 3. Mehrere rote K.b. an unserem hübschen W., mit den vielen bunten K. 4. deine wenigen guten, mit e.b. gröβerer V.; 5. alle seine guten F., einige ausländische G.; 6. mit ihren beiden kleinen G., mit zwei anderen netten K., viele interessante T., manch eine spannende V.; 7. etwas Kaltes, einen solchen groβen D., einige groβe F. mit frischer L.; 8. Die vielen bunten B. in unserem schönen G., mehr liebevolle P., bei meiner vielen A. 9. Einem jeden neuen S., viele so gute W. des herzlichen W., jeder einzelne, auf manche interessante S. 10. alles Gute zu Ihrem bevorstehenden G., all Ihrer geheimsten W.

4.144 a. 1. gesünder, mehr; 2. wärmer, kränker; 3. kürzesten, geradesten; 4. Arme, härter, Reiche; 5. dümmer, kindischer; 6. schlanker, jünger; 7. dunklere, blonder; 8. übler, teurer; 9. härter, straffer; 10. geschickteren, energischeren.

b. 1. Heute fühle ich mich ein biβchen besser als gestern. 2. Vorbereitungen sind weniger wichtig als die eigentliche Arbeit. 3. Diese Versuche waren ebenso teuer wie nutzlos. 4. Das neue Verfahren ist weit wirksamer als das alte. 5. Er war eher amüsiert als schockiert. 6. Ihr Profit war dieses Jahr um die Hälfte höher als im letzten. 7. Unser Geschäft ist bedeutend besser bekannt als ihres. 8. Ist er bereit, das gröβere Risiko einzugehen? 9. Das Gras ist auf der anderen Seite des Zaunes immer grüner. 10. Ich könnte mir keine schönere Uberraschung vorstellen.

c. 1. überzeugendsten; 2. falscheste; 3. gewissensloseste; 4. gefürchtetste; 5. schwärzeste. 6. genauesten; 7. frühsten, schlimmsten; 8. interessantestes; 9. gewissenhafteste; berühmteste, gepriesenste.

4.1441 1. dumpfer, flacher; 2. komischste, amüsanteste; 3. kürzer, klarer; 4. schlaueste, zäheste; 5. lebhafter, interessierter; 6. bedeutendste, wichtigste; 7. rascheren, schnellsten; 8. kälteste, glätter, gefährlicher; 9. höchste, größte, stolzeste, 10. passendere, zutreffender.

4.145 a. 1. Klügere, Bescheidene; 2. Angestellten, Beamte; 3. Portugiesischen, Französische; 4. Deutschen, Deutsche; 5. Alten, Kranken, Arbeitslosen; 6. Geistesgestörten, Wahnsinniger; 7. Neues, Erfreuliches; 8. Angehörigen, Verwandten; 9. Schlimsten, Häßlichsten; 10. Gleiches, Gleichem; 11. Blaue; 12. Wesentlichen, Wichtigsten; 13. Lustiges, Komisches; 14. Angeklagte, Unschuldiger; 15. Traurigen, Gutes; 16. Vorsitzende, Fremde, Vernünftiges; 17. Jüngster, Praktische, Theoretische; 18. Besserem, Griechischen, Heiligen; 19. Vergangene, Gegenwärtigen, Zukünftige; 20. Unzufriedenen, Schöne.

b. 1. Ich habe nichts Besseres zu tun, als mir um das Helle und Dunkle des Lebens Sorgen zu machen. 2. "Die Nackten und die Toten" ist ein berühmter Roman. 3. Ich bin sicher, Sie haben etwas Ahnliches erlebt. 4. Der Betrunkene rannte in eine Gruppe Reisender. 5. Ich habe nichts Positives über ihn zu sagen. 6. Hast du etwas Nützliches und Vernünftiges zu tun? 7. Ich stelle dich diesen Bekannten vor. 8. Man sollte die Begabten und Talentierten unterstützen. 9. Er sagte viel Interessantes aber auch manches Unsinnige. 10. Diese Deutschen beherrschen das Englische und Französische gut.

4.146 a. 1. She has an old, already somewhat rusty car. 2. We ran through the hall that was populated by festive guests (relative). 3. He is the son of a Norwegian business man who immigrated around 1890 (relative). 4. Are you familiar with the machine that was lent to me by Mr. Meier (relative). 5. The young girl who smiled with some embarrassment was his daughter (relative). 6. The traffic that howled on the wide streets of the big city frightened her (relative). 7. Today, the towns which were destroyed by the war are rebuilt (relative). 8. Her father is an engineer who is also known in America (relative). 9. The train that just arrived from Frankfurt will immediately depart (relative). 10. I can no longer bear the noisy and constantly fighting children.

b. 1. Der von der Polizei schon seit Wochen gesuchte Dieb; 2. Der für das berühmte Gemälde bezahlte Preis; 3. um ihren letztes Jahr nach langem Leiden verstorbenen Vater; 4. Der von singenden Kindern mit leuchtenden Augen umstandene Weihnachtsbaum; 5. seine als Ärztin in einem großen Berliner Krankenhaus arbeitende Schwester; 6. über das heute trotz seiner größten Mühe mißlungenen Experiment; 7. die im Nebenzimmer friedlich schlafenden Kinder; 8. einen schneeweißen, seine Krawatte ganz bedeckenden Bart; 9. seine wegen seiner vermißten Verwandten an das Deutsche Rote Kreuz gerichtete Korrespondenz; 10. diese nun endlich beendete Ubung.

4.147

4.1471 1. Goethe wurde (im Jahre) siebzehnhundertneunundvierzig geboren. 2. Meine Telefonnummer ist fünf vier, sechs neun, zwei zwei (zwo). 3. Das Bundesdefizit betägt fünfundneunzig Millionen dreihundertsiebzigtausend sechshundertundeine Mark. 4. Was kostet das? Das kostet (ein)hundertvierundneunzig (Mark) (und) siebenundzwanzig (Pfennig). 6. Zeig mir dein Zeugnis! Warum hast du eine Vier in Englisch? Du hättest mehr arbeiten sollen, um wenigstens eine Zwei zu bekommen. 7. Sie kann über vierzig sein, aber er hat die Sechzig bestimmt überschritten. 8. In den zwanziger Jahren studierte er in London, und in den Vierzigern lebte er in New York. 9. Er hat keinen Groschen in der Tasche, aber er benahm sich, als hätte er Tausende. 10. Könnten Sie mir hundert Mark in Einern, Fünfern, Zehnern und einem Zwanziger geben?

4.1472 1. Heute ist Dienstag, der vierzehnte November neunzehnhundertzweiundachtzig. 2. Wann wurden Sie geboren? Am neunten April neunzehnhundertvierundfünfzig. 3. Karl der Erste ist auch als Karl der Große bekannt. 4. Seine Mutter ist die zweite Tochter ihres Vaters aus dessen dritter Ehe. 5. Bus fünf kommt alle zwanzig Minuten während des Tages. Gestern abend habe ich gerade den letzten erwischt. 6. Er will immer der Erste sein und ist nie mit dem Zweitbesten zufrieden. 7. Ich kann nicht mitgehen. Erstens habe ich meine Hausaufgaben noch nicht gemacht, zweitens soll ich Hans anrufen, und drittens mache ich mir wirklich nichts aus dem Film. 8. Sie wohnt im sechsten Haus in der neunundzwanzigsten Straße. 9. Er hat uns gestern die Geschichte zum hundersten Mal erzählt. 10. Inge ist in der fünften Klasse, Helmut in der achten, und Wolfgang ist in seinem dritten Jahr an der Universität.

4.1473 1. Er wird bald neunzehn, aber sein kleiner Bruder ist erst zweieinhalb. 2. Man nehme zwei Eier, dreiviertel (drei Viertel) Liter Milch, eineinhalb (anderthalb) Pfund Zucker, drei und ein Viertel Pfund Mehl und ein Achtel Pfund Butter. 3. Es ist Halbzeit; hoffentlich wird die zweite Hälfte besser. 4. Der Zug kommt um neun Uhr dreiundzwanzig abends an und fährt um zehn Uhr sieben wieder ab. 5. Wieviel ist siebzehn mal neunundzwanzig? Rechne es selbst aus! Es ist vierhundertdreiundneunzig. 6. Es ist Zeit schlafen zu gehen, es ist schon zehn nach zwölf; da bleiben nur sechs Stunden, wenn wir um Viertel nach sechs aufstehen wollen. 7. Die Vorstellung beginnt um zwanzig Uhr fünfzehn. Pause ist von einundzwanzig Uhr fünfundvierzig bis zweiundzwanzig Uhr fünf, und sie ist um dreiundzwanzig Uhr zwanzig beendet. 8. Ich habe dich viermal gebeten, es zu senden. Bitte bringe es ein für allemal her! 9. Er gab mir ein Drittel seines Butterbrotes und die Hälfte seines Apfels ab. 10. Sein Roman ist zu drei Fünfteln fertig, aber er wird ihn noch fünfzehn Mal überarbeiten.

4.15 a. ago.

b. 1. Am (3), beim (3); 2. vor (1); 3. mit (3); über (2); 4. dagegen (4); 5. gemäß (4); 6. über (4), aufs (3); 7. während (3), in (2); 8. auf (3), vor (3), über (2); 9. Deswegen (5), ins (3); 10. mit (3), vor (3), an (1).

4.151 a. 1. Gegen den; 2. für; 3. um; 4. bis zum bitteren; 5. durch; 6. für; 7. Für, gegen; 8. ohne, gegen; 9. um, für diesen; 10. Durch ihren, um die, für ihre.

b. 1. Rings um seinen Besitz baute er einen hohen Zaun. 2. Wenn Sie die Briefmarke gegen das Licht halten, werden Sie das Wasserzeichen sehen. 3. Sie bauten Hotels den ganzen schönen Strand entlang. 4. Das Auto drehte sich um sich selbst und gegen die Leitplanke. 5. Sie kamen bis auf den Ehrengast alle pünktlich. 6. Sie arbeitete bis zum Herbst, dann machte sie eine Reise durch den Süden. 7. Ohne Telefon können wir uns nicht um Mutter kümmern. 8. Sie rannte durch die Stadt zum Bahnhof. 9. Ich bin bereit, bis zu tausend Mark für diese Antiquitäten zu bieten. 10. Können Sie um acht kommen und durch die Mittagspause durcharbeiten? Ohne Hilfe kann ich es nicht schaffen.

4.152 1. mit der Straßenbahn zum Bahnhof, mit dem Eilzug nach Paris. 2. mit ihren Kindern, bei ihrer Schwester. 3. Außer seinem Haus, durch den Prozeß. 4. nach drei J., aus A, seit, bei seinen V. 5. mit Ihnen, zur, vom, zur; 6. von seinem, zum; 7. Außer einem, zu meiner, von ihr mit einer guten; 8. Zu ihrer großen, zu, von ihrem, aus roter, mit aparter, aus Indien, von seinen weiten; 9. Auf unsere, über die bestellten, vom, mit, seit; 10. von einem, mit, zum, nach einer, mit, aus einer.

4.153 a. He lives in a house, vs. he walks into the house: 'in' corresponds to in with dative, the verb implying rest, while 'into' corresponds to in with accusative, the verb denoting motion. As a mnemonic aid: 'in,' 'dative' and 'rest' are short words and belong together, while 'into,' 'accusative' and 'motion' are long words.

b. 1. in sein, in seinem; 2. auf den, auf dem; 3. auf die, auf der; 4. vor dem; im; 5. In, an; 6. vor dem, vor die; 7. In der; Am, an einen; 8. Auf keinen, unter keiner, hinters, unter; 9. Auf seinen, an, mit großen, über die, in den, über die, auf einem, auf der Spitze.

4.154 a. 1. mit Heizung; 2. wegen der Verlängerung; 3. Von der Behörde; 4. Auf Ihre Anfrage; 5. Durch ihr/Mit ihrem Vermögen; 6. Bei einer genauen/Durch eine genaue Überprüfung; 7. Durch seine Stellung; 8. Wegen seiner schweren Krankheit; 10. Durch den Energiemangel.

b. 1. wegen (2), auf (3); 2. über (2), durch (3); 3. auf (1), zu (3); 4. durch (1), durch (3); 5. zu (3); 6. wegen (2), nach (3); 7. durch (1), durch (3); 8. zu (1), zu (3); 9. nach (2), über (3); 10. über (2), durch (2).

4.16

4.161 a. 1. seine, es gehorcht ihr, vertraut ihr, bei ihr, ohne sie; 2. Sie Ihren, Sie Ihre, mit Ihnen; 3. sie dir; 4. Euch, an Euch, Euch, Eure Pläne für Euer; Ihr mir bitte meine Bücher; an Euch, an Eure Gäste, Euer Peter. 5. er gefällt ihr, sie, sie, ihres.

b. 1. Wir zeigen es ihm. 2. Ihnen habe ich sie g. 3. Er raubt sie ihm. 4. Er hat sie ihr gezeigt. 5. Er bringt sie ihnen.

c. 1. sie dir; 2. es ihm; 3. Sie es mir; 4. sie mir; 5. ihn dir; 6. es mir; 7. ihr es ihm; 8. meiner; 9. es Ihnen; 10. Sie es mir.

d. 1. Es wurde beschlossen; 2. Es läßt sich besser arbeiten; 3. Mir ist kalt; 4. Es wurden seine Ideen besprochen; 5. Es läßt sich o.G. besser leben. 6. Es war dem Studenten unverständlich; 7. Es ärgerte mich; 9. Es hungert ihn; 9. Hier läßt es sich gut einkaufen. 10. Es wurde versucht.

4.1611 a. 1. sich, 2. mich, mir; 3. uns; 4. euch; 5. dir; 6. sich; 7. dir; 8. mir; 9. sich; 10. mir.

b. 1. sich; 2. Hast du dich s.r.? 3. Ich habe mich s.e.; 4. Hat sie sich j.b.? 5. Er hat sich g.v. 6. Wir haben uns d.g. 7. Ich habe mich g.a. 8. Habt ihr euch s.a.? 9. Er hat sich i.b. 10. Ich habe mich d.e.

c. 1. Hast du dich ausgeschlafen? 2. Er brach sich einen Arm und kann sich nicht selbst anziehen. 3. Ich habe mich schrecklich erkältet. 4. Sie haben sich scheiden lassen. 5. Ich kann mir nicht vorstellen, warum er sich in Eva verliebt hat. 6. Er entschloß sich, sich zu betrinken. 7. Hast du g., wie sie sich küßten? 8. Du kannst dir deine Frage selbst beantworten. 9. Wir mögen uns gern und helfen einander. 10. Sie konnte sich nicht daran gewöhnen v. er sich benahm.

4.162 a. Although English 'there'-compounds are no longer used in a manner equivalent to German da-compounds, students will understand them: Er kommt damit - he comes therewith.

b. 1. Seitdem hat er noch nicht mit ihnen gesprochen. 2. Warum hast du mich nicht daran erinnert? 3. Hast du dich schon bei ihr dafür bedankt? 4. Deswegen besuchen wir sie stattdessen. 5. Wir erwarten von ihr e.A. darauf. 6. Er kämpfte gegen ihn dafür. 7. Hast du mit ihnen darüber gesprochen? 8. Währenddessen kann ich mich nicht darauf v. 9. Denkst du gern daran? 10. Sie ist e. auf ihn und darauf.

c. 1. darum; 2. von ihm; 3. damit; 4. von ihm; 5. dabei; 6. dazu; 7. bei uns; 8. an ihn; 9. danach; 10. darauf.

4.163 a. 1. dem, dessen; 2. denen; 3. die; 4. Das; 5. den, dem.

b. 1. dieselbe, der gleichen; 2. denselben, das gleiche; 3. demselben; 4. das gleiche; 5. derselben, die gleichen.

c. 1. Welch ein; 2. welchem; 3. welchen; 4. welche, Welche; 5. Welch einen, welche.

4.164 a. 1. "Jedermann" ist ein berühmtes Drama von Hugo von Hofmannsthal. 2. Niemand Berühmtes war in dem Film, der von allen gelobt wurde. 3. Jemand klopft. Kann denn niemand (nicht jemand/irgendeiner) die Tür öffnen? Ich will mit niemandem sprechen. 4. Könnten Sie mir bitte etwas Geld geben? Ich habe nichts zu essen und würde gern etwas kaufen. 5. Was möchten Sie trinken? Irgendetwas, aber etwas Rotwein wäre gut. 6. Das ist nicht jedermanns Vorstellung von etwas Positivem. 7. Wenn er krank ist, beleidigt er einen und will niemanden und nichts sehen. 8. Wir konnten gar nichts herausfinden. Wir konnten weder jemanden fragen, noch jemanden um Hilfe bitten. 9. Man sollte ihm wirklich dankbar sein, da er einem immer hilft und die Sorgen eines jeden zu seinen eigenen macht. 10. Beklage dich nicht, daß du nicht jemand Reiches und Berühmtes bist!

4.165 a. 1. Bei wem? Wofür? 2. Was sind? 3. Mit welchem Freund? Wo gehen wir? 4. Wann trug? Was für einen Mantel? 5. Mit wem? Wohin? Was muß er tun? 6. Wessen Opern? Wie sind? 7. Weswegen/Warum? Wem? 8. Wem? Wofür? 9. Wann? Ohne was? Zu wem? 10. Trotz was? Weswegen/Warum?

b. 1. Warum/Wozu/Weshalb hast du das getan? 2. Wegen welchen Befehls muß er weggehen? 3. Wieso/Warum/Weshalb ist er bei der Prüfung durchgefallen? 4. Wessen Buch ist das? 5. Was könnte sie damit meinen? 6. Mit wem hast du die Angelegenheit besprochen? 7. In welchem Topf soll ich das kochen? 8. Wann und wo kann ich dich treffen? 9. Worauf wartest du? 10. Was für Briefe erwartest du?

4.17 1. Weder er noch ich kannte die Antwort. 2. Er war sowohl reich als auch gutaussehend. 3. Er möchte entweder ein Stück Land oder einen kleinen Bauernhof kaufen. 4. Sie ist nicht nur meine Freundin, sondern auch meine verehrte Kollegin. 5. Könntest du oder sie das Buch mitbringen? 6. Mann, Frau und Kind setzten sich zum Essen. 7. Ihre Bitten waren weder bescheiden noch vernünftig. 8. Nein, ich möchte weder dieses noch jenes. 9. Er ist weder ein guter noch ein erfolgreicher Arbeiter. 10. Sie züchten sowohl Pferde als auch Esel und sehr berühmte Kühe.

4.2

4.21 a. 1.=4, 6, 14; 2.=2, 3, 13; 3.=5, 9, 10, 15; 4.=1, 7, 11, 12; 5.=8.

b. 1, 3.

c. 6, 7.

4.211 a. 1. gab ein Referat; 2. seine Auswanderung n.A.; 3. Sie gaben u.P. ihre Zustimmung; 4. Wir haben großes Interesse f.M. 5. Er machte ihr den Vorwurf; 6. D.P. kann für die Schuld d.A. keinen Beweis bringen. 7. D.O. übte schäfste Kritik an der R. 8. Sie konnte keine Entscheidung treffen; 9. Ich gebe diesem R. den Vorzug. 10. er hatte Zweifel an dem E.d.E.

b. 1. Bitte benachrichtigen Sie mich sofort; 2. Wir haben ihn beauftragt; 3. D.L.d.S beeindruckten das P. sehr. 4. Darf ich Sie zu Ihrer P. beglückwünschen? 5. M.s. diese T. nicht zu gering bewerten. 6. S.T. hat die F. sehr beeinflußt. 7. Könnten Sie das beeiden? 8. Er bevollmächtigte sie; 9. Was berechtigt dich zu so scharfer K.? 10. Wir haben neue R. beantragt.

c. 1. gegangen; 2. geriet; 3. gebracht; 4. nehmen; 5. kam; 6. stellt; 7. geraten; 8. stellt; 9. nehmen; 10. gezogen; 11. bringe; 12. geben; 13. gegangen; 14. stellen; 15. setzt; 16. gestellt; 17. kommt; 18. setzte; 19. steht; 20. setzt.

4.22 a. Yes, it would be practical to distinguish the function of adjectives and participles in the verb phrase from that in the noun phrase, although the binary function is one of their characteristics.

b. 1. Hammel, Stahl, Gram, Geier, Greis, Apperitiv; 2. willkommen, Datum, verrückt, untertan, verlegen, erhaben; 3. Leutnant, während, intelligent, Heiland, abwesend, Feind; 4. Anliegen, Interesse, Souper, Wesen, Vermögen, Vergnügen; 5. aber, Eltern, Ufer, Major, Jünger, Herr.

4.23

4.231 1. Eine, in die A., in die S., nach --Österreich; 2. --Talent, er --Künstler, ein großer M. 3. Ich mag --schwarzen K., mit --Zucker und --Sahne. 4. das herrliche R., das hübsche D. in --Bayern. 5. In den V.S., die größten W. in der W. 6. Der R., durch --Deutschland, die Niederlande, in der Nordsee. 7. Der größte B. in --ganz Deutschland ist die Z. in den B.A. 8. Der R., aus --Platin, einem der kostbarsten M. der W. 9. Die Titanic, mit --Mann und --Maus, in dem A.O.; 10. nach dem M., eine Orange.

4.232 a. 1. in die; 2. aus unserem; 3. von diesem; 4. aus dem Z. ausgebrochene; 5. in; 6. in den; 7. von ihrem; 8. auf das; 9. auf den; 10. von dieser.

b. 1. von, bis, in; 2. Um, mit, zwischen; 3. In, mit, zum, in, in; 4. Während, mit, über; 5. In, zum, an; 6. Vor; 7. von; 8. Nach, ins; 9. auf; 10. Wegen, am; 11. Mit, vom, zu; 12. in, nach; 13. Nach, in, zu; 14. von, an; 15. über; 16. Am, trotz; 17. am, in, an, neben/bei; 18. mit; 19. an; 20. in, vor; 21. von; 22. statt, von; 23. mit, mit, aus; 24. vor, für; 25. um; 26. In, durch; 27. in, 28. bei, für. 29. bei, für; 30. Seit, in, an, neben, auf/über.

4.24

4.241 a. 1. Dieses Möbelstück ist; 2. An einem Ferientag; 3. Der Polizist (Schutzmann) ist; 4. dieses Schmuckstück; 5. Diese ausländische Frucht wird; 6. Der Zuhörer (Zuschauer) klatschte; 7. Hier ist Regen (Schnee); 8. Sein Vater und seine Mutter sind auf einen Berg g. 9. Ein Förster muß einen Baum g.k; 10. Im Herbst verliert ein Baum sein Blatt.

b. 1. Das kostet zwölf Mark und vierundzwanzig Pfennig. 2. Er ist zwei Meter groß und wiegt zweihundertundzehn Pfund. 3. Geben Sie mir zwei Liter Milch und drei Stück Seife. 4. Er kaufte zwei Dutzend Hemden, zehn Paar Socken und ein Paar Hosen. 5. Sie trank drei Tassen Kaffee und aß vier Stück Kuchen. 6. In seinem Keller hat er zwei Faß Bier und Hunderte von Weinflaschen (Flaschen mit Wein). 7. Wir haben zwanzig Grad unter Null und zwei Meter Schnee. 8. Er zerstörte Hunderte von Büchern und zerbrach zwei kostbare Gläser. 9. Nach zwei Jahren Sparen (Sparsamkeit) hatte er doch nur wenige Pfennige. 10. Nein, wir nehmen keine Dollar an, bitte zahlen Sie in (mit) Mark.

4.242

4.2421-4.2424 1. N (3/5), A (2/5), D (4); 2. A (3/5), N (34/5), A (4); 3. N (3), A (2), A (2); 4. N (3), A (2), G (2); 5. D (1/2/3), N (3); 6. D (4), N (2/5), D (4); 7. D (4), N (2/3), D (5), A (2); 8. N (3/1), N (2); 9. N (2/3), D (2/5), A 2/5); N (3), D (4).

4.25 1. Er und sie; 2. Deswegen bat er darum. 3. seines; 4. Wem helfe ich gern b.d.A? 5. Mit der; 6. sich; 7. darauf; 8. Wo wohnen sie s.l? 9. Manche fürchten/ Mancher fürchtet; 10. Ich habe ihn und es (sie) g.

4.3

4.31- 4.324 a. 1. No, only one subject, although it can consist of several noun phrases; 2. Yes, two AO are required by valence of kosten, nennen, etc. 3. No, only one; 4. No; 5. Yes, obligatory and facultative complements of some verbs. 6. Yes.

b. 1. wer (pers), was (thing); 2. wen, was; 3. wem; 4. wessen; 5. prepos + wer in correct case (pers), wo + prep (thing).

4.33- 4.331 a. 1. einen Kilometer; 2. eines Tages; 3. einen Monat; 4. jeden zweiten Tag; 5. Eines Nachts; 6. einen Zentimeter; 7. einen Pfennig; 8. des Morgens; 9. einen Meter siebzig; 10. keinen Augenblick.

b. 1. Er hat seine Bücher in seinem Schreibtisch in der Schule vergessen (place); 2. Ich brauche andere Kleidung für diese Arbeit (purpose). 3. Ohne Peters Hilfe hättest du es nicht geschafft (condition). 4. Sie rief uns um 3 Uhr morgens an (time). 5. Wegen der Kälte sollten wir ein Feuer machen (cause). 6. Sie schrie vor Zorn und Angst (mood). 7. Er schläft trotz seines bevorstehenden Examens bis Mittag (contrast, time). 8. Treffen Sie mich nach dem Abendessen am Bahnhof (time, place). 9. Warum zerschneidest du die Schnur nicht mit der Schere? (mood). 10. Er ist seit vier Wochen nicht bei der Arbeit gewesen (time, place).

4.34 1. auf; 2. an unsere, vor den; 3. über seinen; 4. an ihrem, vor dem, in der; 5. Zum, an die 6. auf unsere, über den; 7. für den; 8. über seinen; 9. Durch, an seiner, für die; 10. um eine, in die.

4.4

4.41 a. 1. Ausgerechnet den nettesten Leuten muß das passieren. 2. Seine Frau kaufte das gerade teuerste Kleid. 3. Ausgerechnet das neueste Auto mußten die Diebe stehlen. Haben sie überhaupt Kinder? 5. Dieser Mann eben ist des Vertrauens nicht würdig.

b. 1. Nur die besten Studenten bekommen Stipendien. 2. Sie ist erst eine Stunde hier. 3. Er ist zu jung. Er hat noch keinen Führerschein. 4. Sie wollten nur einen guten Rat. 5. Er starb, als er erst fünf Jahre alt war.

c. 1. von heute; 2. dort/da; 3. heutzutage; 4. ganz vorn; 5. herunter; 6. oben; 7. geradeaus, rechts; 8. dort/da; 9. morgens; 10. hinein.

4.42

4.421 a. 1. der; 2. einen kleinen; 3. die alte, schöne; 4. meinen besten, einen; 5. einer, der wichtigsten; 6. dem; 7. einen wesentlichen; 8. dem; 9. eines reizenden, alten Ehepaares. 10. eines erfolgreichen, der erfolglose.

b. 1. unseren; 2. einen mutigen; 3. dem Verantwortlichen; 4. dem Ältesten; 5. der behandelnde.

c. 1. der Fromme, des Großen, den Kaiser, den Deutschen, den Kahlen. 2. des Großen, des Herrn über Europa und Amerika. 3. dem Achten, der als der König von England mit der k. Kirche, dem zuvor einzigen Glauben, brach. 4. Ludwig dem Ersten, Maximilian den Zweiten. 5. Friedrichs des Großen, Schlesien, ein bodenschatzreiches Land.

d. 1. den; 2. den; 3. dem; 4. einem; 5. dem, den.

4.422 a. 1. meiner kleinen Schwester; 2. das Fahrrad des ausländischen Studenten; 3. die zwei Schornsteine des neuen Hauses. 4. dem Radioapparat des netten Mieters. 5. der besonders netten Lehrerin meiner Kinder. 6. die guten Arbeiten der Schüler; 7. Onkel Ottos Auto; 8. die Tochter der Schwester meiner Mutter. 9. die hellerleuchteten Schaufenster der großen Geschäfte. 10. Großvaters Zigarren.

b. 1. von Kontinenten; 2. Die Arbeiten von Schülern, die von Professoren. 3. Die Bewohner großer Städte, die Bewohner kleiner Dörfer; 4. Die Arbeiten von Tagen sind; 5. Das Möblieren neuer Häuser; 6. Das Versprechen Erwachsener, das kleiner Kinder; 7. Das Erlernen fremder Sprachen; 8. Die Vorhersagen von Wetterberichten sind; 9. Das Schreiben von Büchern, die Geduld von Engeln; 10. Das Blühen schöner Rosen.

4.423 a. 1. Der Zug aus Berlin ist gerade angekommen (place). 2. Könnten Sie mir ein Mittel für/gegen Halsschmerzen geben? (purpose). 3. Schüler sind in Klassen am Nachmittag müde (time). 4. Sie sprach mit einem Mann in einem schwarzen Anzug (mood). 5. Er möchte eine Stellung mit viel Verantwortung (mood). 6. Ihre Ankunft trotz der späten Stunde freute uns (contrast). 7. Einmal möchte ich ein Abendessen ohne Unterbrechung (condition). 8. Er raucht immer Zigaretten mit Filter (mood). 9. Seine Arbeit für die Stadt befriedigt ihn sehr (mood). 10. Das Flugzeug flog über die Grenze zwischen Deutschland und Österreich (place).

b. 1. In den in der Stadtmitte besonders engen Straßen/In den besonders engen Straßen der Stadtmitte. 2. die aus dem Gefängnis in der Kreisstadt geflohenen Verbrecher; 3. sein Fahrrad, sein liebstes Verkehrsmittel; 4. Sie legte die Eier fürs Frühstück ins kochende Wasser. 5. Die Demonstranten gegen den Krieg durchbrachen die von der Polizei durchgeführte Absperrung.

4.43 1. unbekannten/nicht bekannten; 2. Weder durch Geld noch durch gute Worte; 3. kein Auto; 4. keinen Roman sondern eine Novelle; 5. nicht sehr; 6. Nicht einer/Keiner; 7. weder durch das Telefon noch durch Besucher; 8. keinen Puter sondern eine Gans; 9. Nicht alle; 10. weder von ihm noch von ihr.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. SENTENCES AND CLAUSES

5.1

1. Larger utterance containing at least two clauses. 2. An utterance containing at least subject and predicate. 3. Can be a noun phrase or a verb phrase. 4. A verbal expression without a finite verb, such as infinitive or participle.

5.11 1. Unserem lieben Groβvater (DO) haben (pred) wir (S) zum Geburtstag (mod purpose) gratuliert (pred). 2. Wer (S) hat (pred) dem Briefträger (DO) die Tür (AO) geöffnet (pred). 3. Sehr (mod emphasis) müde (pred adj) bin (pred) ich (S) heute (mod time) (end of first, main clause), denn (conjunction) ich (S) habe (pred) schlecht (mod mood) geschlafen (pred) (end of second, main, clause). 4. Bitte (mod mood) kommt (pred) nicht (mod negation) vor 8 Uhr (mod tim). 5. Sie (S) fahren (pred) morgen (mod time) zur Büchermesse (mod place) nach Frankfurt (mod place).

5.2

5.21 a. 1.=(2); 2.=(2); 3.=(1); 4.=(1); 5.=(1); 6.=(2); 7.=(1); 8.=(1); 9.=(1); 10.=(2).

b. 1. Any type of clause, since it is not specified whether the "first stake" is in initial position. 2. The finite verb in a main clause. 3. In a main clause: participles, infinitives. 4. Objects, modifiers.

5.211 a. 1.=(2b); 2.=(4); 3.=(2a); 4.=(3); 5.=(1); 6.=(2a/3); 7.=(4); 8.=(2b); 9.=(4); 10.=(1).

b. 1. Doch, ich habe; 2. Nein, ich habe keine Milch; 3. Ja, ich werde; 4. Doch, wir werden; 5. Doch, das wäre; 6. Doch, er hat; 7. Nein, sie war nicht mehr; 8. Doch, die Geschichte ist; 10. Ja, ich wollte.

5.22

5.221 1. Der Lehrer steht jeden Morgen sehr früh auf. 2. Du hast deine Mutter um Erlaubnis bitten müssen. 3. Ich werde von ihm nicht zur Schule begleitet werden können. 4. Die Häuser waren nach dem Krieg wieder aufgebaut worden. 5. Inge wird zum Abendessen eingeladen werden wollen. 6. Wir hatten sie nicht zu fragen brauchen. 7. Der Direktor führte eine Untersuchung durch. 8. Fritz wird von Ilse angetroffen worden sein. 9. Der Brief wurde wom Briefträger gebracht. 10. Ihr hat für das Geschenk gedankt werden sollen.

5.222 1. Viele Männer singen b.B.; Beim Baden singen v.M. 2. Die Farben der Bäume sind i.H.a.s.; Am schönsten sind d.F.d.B.i.H. 3. Schon im September werden d.N.i.k.; Immer kälter werden d.N.s.i.S. 4. Der Bote hat ihn g.n.a.; Ihn hat der Bote g.n.a.; Gestern hat der Bote i.n.a.; Nicht angetroffen hat ihn d.B.g. 5. Sie muβ den Arzt g.w.i.S.a.; Den Arzt muβ sie g.w.i.S.a; Gleich muβ sie den Arzt w.i.S.a; Anrufen muβ sie d.A.w.i.S.g.

5.223 1. Der Direktor gestattet dem Ausländer den Eintritt; ihm den Eintitt; ihn dem Ausländer; ihn ihm. 2. In der Straßenbahn überläßt ein Herr einer Dame seinen Platz; er ihr seinen Platz; ihn einer Dame; er ihn ihr. 3. Die Feuerwehr bringt dem Verunglückten erste Hilfe; ihm Hilfe; sie dem Verunglückten; sie ihm. 4. Der Lehrer erzählt seinem Kollegen eine gute Neuigkeit; ihm eine g.N; sie seinem K; sie ihm. 5. Die Mutter bestraft die Kinder für die Unordnung; sie für d.U.; die Kinder dafür; sie dafür.

5.224 a. 1. Die Kinder gehen bei Sonnenschein gern mit ihren Freunden zur Schule. 2. Sie kommt heute wahrscheinlich vergeblich zu mir. 3. Das Kind hat gestern wegen seiner schlechten Augen vom Arzt eine Brille bekommen. 4. Er macht jetzt in seinem Labor den Versuch ohne Angst trotz der Gefahr. Bei starkem Verkehr farhen wir täglich zweimal in die Stadt.

b. By positing modifier into first slot or by using subordinate clauses.

5.2241 a. 1. Mitgehen wird er nicht wollen; 2. Damit soll man u.d.U. zufrieden sein; 3. Meinen alten Tisch hat er mir r.; 4. Seinen Eltern sollte man; 5. Das hat sie; 6. Mit dem G. hat man ihnen g. 7. Verzeihen kann ich ihm d.n.; 8. Geglaubt haben wir i.n.a.s.E.; 9. Erschüttert war sie v.d.N. 10. Aber trotzdem wollen wir e.g.

b. 1. Er hat sich ausdrücklich dagegen gewehrt. 2. An jenem Morgen erschien ihm das Leben b.s. 3. Von der Vorstellung war das Publikum begeistert. 4. er wollte das m.G. damals erzwingen. 5. Sie hat e.n.S. ihrer Tante versprochen.

5.2242 1. Er hat ihr nicht absichtlich wehgetan. 2. Nein, d.i.s.S. nicht. 3. Warum h.d.e.F.P. nicht gegeben? 4. Um einen Gefallen kann man ihn nicht bitten. 5. Ohne s.A. kann man e.Z. nicht erreichen. 6. Man sollte i.d.L. nicht einkaufen. 7. B.r.u.n.9.U. nicht an! 8. Hast d.i.d.G. nicht gesandt? 9. Man soll sich darüber nicht zu sehr aufregen. 10. Dieser Plan scheint mir als nicht durchführbar.

5.23

5.231a+b. 1. Sie beklagte den Tod ihres Vaters (,) und (sie) weinte. 2. Hans kommt nicht jetzt (,) sondern (er) (kommt) erst später. 3. Sollen wir anrufen (,) oder (sollen) (wir) Inge schicken? 4. Ich bin böse, denn der Brief ist verloren gegangen. 5. Es scheint unmöglich, aber wir werden es versuchen. 6. Wo ist dein Mantel und wohin hast du deine Schuhe gestellt? 7. Müssen Sie jetzt gehen, oder können Sie noch bleiben? 8. Er kam, (er) sah (,) und (er) siegte. 9. Das war nicht meine Schuld (,) sondern (es) (war) seine (Schuld).

5.232 a. 1. danach; 2. darum; 3. auf sie; 4. dabei; 5. dafür; 6. daran; 7. daran; 8. danach; 9. daraus; 10. davon.

b. 1. Es ist zu naß, deswegen bleibe ich z.H. 2. Er fürchtete sich; trotzdem verteidigte er sich. 3. Sie hatte k.G.; stattdessen gab sie ihm B. 4. Der L. redet v.i.U.; währenddessen schlafen die S. 5. Sie hat geheiratet; seitdem ist sie u.

c. Er w.n.a., doch muß er a. 2. Der V.h.e.e., folglich solltest du e.t. 3. Er k.s.; allerdings wußten wir das. 4. Die S.i.e., also brauchst du d.d.n.z.k. 5. Einerseits möchte

sie v.G.v., andererseits möchte sie K.h.

d. 1. Er muß doch a.; 2. du solltest es folglich tun; 3. wir wußten das allerdings; 4. du brauchst dich also d.n.z.k; 5. sie möchte andererseits Kinder h.

5.3

5.31 a. 1. Er konnte sich durch einen Sprung aus dem Fenster retten (1). 2. Wegen ihrer Krankheit geht sie nicht mit uns ins Theater (1). 3. Der A. ist in s.H. zurückgekehrt. Die P. fragte nach d.A. (2). 4. Ich weiß wirklich nichts über das Verbleiben deines Buches (1). 5. Ich telefoniere oft nach B. Meine V. wohnen dort. (2). 6. Sie haben den Zeitpunkt ihrer Ankunft nicht geschrieben (1). 7. Bei seinem Kommen bringt der P. sicher das Paket (1). 8. Sie hat eine s.E. Sie leidet durch die E. (2). 9. Jemand hat ein V. begangen. Jemand kann nicht festgestellt werden (2). 10. Schulzes sind w.g.F. Mit dem tätigen B. von Schulzes wurde der Kranke gesundgepflegt (2).

b. Yes, English subordinate clauses function in the same manner.

5.32 a. No, it is only applicable to main clauses.

b. 1. The time modifier uses German construction and translates vor zwanzig Jahren literally instead 'twenty years ago.'
2. Main clause with pres perfect: Und ich habe nie den Wunsch gehabt, die edle Sprache zu verletzen; infinitive construction; ich wünschte sie nur zu verbessern; main clause, subjunctive: ich würde sie nur reformieren.
3. No, in German both sie are accusative; in English once the N 'she' and once the object pronoun 'her' is used.
4. Es ist der Traum meines Lebens gewesen.
5. würde plus numerous infinitives.
6. One main clause, one daß-clause with an embedded modifier clause of time.

c. 1. Weil es stürmt und schneit, bleiben wir g.z.H. 2. Zieh d.w. an, damit du dich nicht erkältest! 3. Freuen Sie sich, wenn der F. endlich kommt? 4. Obwohl er s.f. war, bestand er d.P. nicht. 5. Es ist sehr w., bevor ein Gewitter aufzieht. 6. Als sie in Köln studierte, sah sie ihn z.l.M. 7. Während die Mutter das Essen kocht, liest Vater den Brief. 8. Sobald er i.K. ankam, ging er s.i.H. 9. Wir wunderten uns d., daß sie sich verspätete. 10. Viele K. leben i.S., da das Klima gesund ist.

5.33

5.331 a. 1. dem ich d.B. empfohlen habe. 2. was d.L. erzählen. 3. mit denen wir uns unterhalten haben? 4. worüber er sich freute. 5. deren ältester T. er G. geliehen hat. 6. wo meine E. wohnen. 7. deren schweren K. er getragen hat. 8. mit der P. befreundet ist. 9. deren schlechte A. hier liegen. 10. den ich noch nicht gelesen habe?

b. 1. Großmutter, deren G. wir g. feierten, ist 80 geworden. 2. Ich bin dem Polizisten, der mir geholfen hat, dankbar. 3. Die Leute, ohne deren s.H. der U. noch schlimmer geworden wäre, arbeiten i.d.N. 4. D.s.S. ist in s.H. zurückgekehrt, was wir sehr bedauern. 5. Eva, mit der Hans lange verlobt

war, hat geheiratet. 6. Diese Kirche, deren B. g. ist, stammt aus d.d.J. 7. Wir nennen d.S., die R. entdeckt hat, r. 8. Wer zu viel arbeitet, muß a.s.G. achten. 9. Wo ist Hans, dessen altes A. noch hier steht, hingegangen? 10. Sie haben sich um ihre k.T., die lange krank war, große S. gemacht.

5.332 a. 1. Es war dumm von ihm, daß er d.V. unterschrieben hat (1). 2. Wir wußten nichts davon, daß sie s. verunglückt waren (3). 3. daß er f.s.b.T. büßen muß (1). 4. Er behauptet, daß er sie nicht hat kommen hören (2). 5. Die S. zeichnete sich d. aus, daß sie s. arbeitete (3). 6. Es ist mir b.a., daß ihr z. kommt (1). 7. M. hat empfohlen, daß wir f. S. anziehen (2). 8. Er prahlte d., daß er sich s. A. hat machen lassen. (3). 9. Wie ist es möglich, daß sie a.S. berühmt wurde? (1). 10. Man flüsterte, daß er v.d.P.w.D. gesucht wurde (2).

b 1. Das war unnötig, daß du das angezweifelt hast (4,1,4). 2. Es ist sehr peinlich, daß das Buch verloren ging (3,1). 3. Ich wußte, daß er das Mädchen gebeten hat, das zu tun (1,4). 4. Daß ich mitgehe und das tue, war sein Befehl (1,4). Das Märchen, das sie den Kindern vorlas, war das, was sie auch als Kind geliebt hatte (3,2,4). 6. Wußtest du das, daß das Haus, das ihr jetzt bewohnt, einmal uns gehört hatte? (4,1,3,2). 7. Daß du das geschafft hast, das macht mich froh (1,4,4). 8. Ohne das Buch, das er sich geliehen hat, kann ich das Zitat nicht finden (3,2,3). 9. Das ist wirklich ein Jammer, daß das Wasser in der kalten Nacht geforen ist und später das Erdgeschoß überschwemmt hat (4,13,3). 10. Das ist hier Sitte, daß das Mädchen, das uns das Haus putzt, Weihnachten eingeladen wird (4,1,3,2,3).

5.3321 a. 1. uns damit einen G. getan zu haben; 2. dich um die A. zu kümmern; 3. meine Ergebnisse zu veröffentlichen; 4. vorzumarschieren; 5. belastendes M. zu besitzen; 6. die K. zu besuchen; 7. in die S. zu gehen; 8. seinen B. zu verkaufen; 9. ihn nicht gefragt zu haben; 10. die A. zu beenden?

b. 1. Es war unmöglich, ihn zu retten. 2. Sie vergaß, den Brief an die S. zu schreiben. 3. Er muß sich daran gewöhnen, regelmäßig zu arbeiten. 4. Der Pilot fürchtete sich davor, auf dem Eis zu landen. 5. Er forderte den Mieter auf, die Miete pünktlich zu zahlen. 6. Es war unmöglich, die Verhandlungen wieder aufzunehmen. 7. Der Vater warnt den Sohn, sein Geld zu verschwenden. 8. Der Lehrer empfahl dem Fremden, sich ein gutes W. zu kaufen. 9. Wir beabsichtigen, unser Haus i.S. neu zu bedachen. 10. Ich bitte dich darum, mich bald anzurufen.

5.333 1. ob er den B. geschrieben hat. 2. Sie hat nicht gesagt, wie sie heißt und wo sie wohnt. 3. wer heute einkaufen geht. 4. womit sie ihm dienen kann. 5. ob es einen harten Winter g. wird. 6. Er beschrieb, wie er den Bären erjagt hatte. 7. Warum ist es dir nicht bekannt, wie das Kunstwerk entstanden ist? 8. Er sagt nicht, bei welcher Gelegenheit er sie getroffen hat. 9. Wir sprechen darüber, wie man N. bildet. 10. Hast du nicht gehört, wie lange er gestern gearbeitet hat?

5.334

5.3341 1. Neulich habe ich F.M. getroffen, bei der ich a. Studentin wohnte. 2. Wo man singt, da laß dich ruhig nieder, denn b.M. haben keine L. 3. Gehst du i.T., wo "F." aufgeführt wird? 4. Die Straße, auf der man nicht fahren soll, ist f. geteert. 5. Wohin du gehst, dahin will ich auch gehen. 6. wo ich s.e.v.z.J. war. 7. Das Zimmer, in das er eintrat, war s.ü. 8. wohin ich ihn begleitet habe. 9. neben der m.O. wohnt. 10. in den d.P.g. hineingegangen war.

5.3342 a. 1. seitdem; 2. Während; 3. Als; 4. wenn; 5. bevor/ehe; 6. Wenn/Sobald; 7. nachdem; 8. Bevor/Ehe; 9. bis; 10. Sobald; 11. Solange; 12. Sobald/Nachdem/Als; 13. Als; 14. bis; 15. Bevor/Ehe/Sobald/Als.

b. 1. Als der K. ausbrach, waren wir g.i.A. 2. Das H. ist unbewohnt, seitdem er tot ist. 3. Die K. wurde abgebrochen, nachdem man t.e. beraten hatte. 4. Während wir U. machten, ist i.u.H. eingebrochen worden. 5. Als er noch lebte, ging es s.F.v. besser. 6. Bitte stehen Sie auf, wenn der R. eintritt. 7. Wo haben Sie gewohnt, als Sie K. waren? 8. Nachdem die V. bekannt wurden, atmeten alle e. auf. 9. Sobald diese F. geklärt sind, hören Sie von uns. 10. Wenn sie sich wiedersehen, weint sie immer vor Freude.

c. 1. Wann; 2. Wenn, wen; 3. Als, wann, wen; 4. Wenn, wann; 5. Als, wen, wann.

d. 1. davor; 2. Bevor; 3. Nachdem, danach; 4. Danach, nachdem, bevor; 5. davor, danach, nachdem.

5.3343 a. 1. deshalb/darum/deswegen/folglich/also; 2. Weil/Da; 3. denn; 4. Deshalb/etc.; 5. deshalb/etc.; 6. deshalb/etc.; 7. denn; 8. Weil/Da; 9. deshalb/etc.; 10. deshalb/etc.

b. 1. dann; 2. denn/dann; 3. da, dann; 4. da; 5. denn/dann; 6. dann; 7. Da; 8. denn; 9. denn dann; 10. Da, denn, dann, da.

5.3344 a. 1. damit man Geld gewinnt/um Geld zu gewinnen. 2. damit man ihn nicht sieht/damit er nicht gesehen wird/um nicht gesehen zu werden. 3. damit man Ski läuft/um Ski zu laufen. 4. damit er die S. beobachten kann/damit die S. beobachtet werden können/um die S. zu beobachten. 5. damit ich meinem V. ein G. kaufen kann/um meinem V. ein G. zu kaufen. 6. V.M.t.B., damit sie besser sehen/um besser zu sehen. 7. damit der Kranke schlafen kann. 8. D.A.tat a., damit er den Verunglückten retten konnte/ damit der Verunglückte gerettet würde/um den Verunglückten zu retten. 9. Sie gießt die Blumen täglich, damit die B. gedeihen. 10. damit wir bald essen können/damit bald gegegessen werden kann.

b. 1. Um den Wohlstand zu vergrößern, arbeiten wir viel. 2. Um seine Krankeit zu heilen, begab er sich i.e.S. 3. Um ein großes Haus zu heizen, braucht man g.O. 4. Um die Währung zu stabilisieren, müssen wir den I. erhöhen. 5. Um die Sicherheit zu fördern, wurden m.P. eingestellt. 6. Um unser Alter zu versorgen, bezahlen wir S. 7. Um seine Sprachkenntnisse zu verbessern, machte er R. 8. Um Land zu gewinnen, ließ d.R.S. austrocknen. 9. Um die S. zu verschönern, legt man einen P. an. 10. Um das Land zu verteidigen, hat man Armeen.

5.3345 a. 1. Obwohl/Obgleich es verboten war, spielten d.K.m.S. 2. Trotzdem er aufmerksam ist, versteht der S. den L. nicht. 3. Obwohl die Sonne h. schien, war es kalt. 4. Er besuchte die V., obwohl er k. war. 5. Obwohl/Trotzdem er arm war, war er i.f.u.z. 6. Er bekam schlechte Zensuren, obwohl er fleißig war. 7. Er kaufte das B., obwohl der Preis zu hoch war. 8. Trotzdem ich sie sorgfältig gepflegt hatte, ist meine B. gestorben. 9. Er fuhr s., obwohl die S. eisig waren. 10. Obwohl er es versprochen hatte, half er den F.n.

b. 1. will ich dir trotzdem verzeihen; 2. Er grüßte mich dennoch nicht; 3. Der Arzt gab ihn aber nicht auf. 4. war er trotzdem nicht glücklich. 5. sie verlor dennoch den M. nicht.

5.3346 a. Wenn er arm ist/Ist er arm, kann er n.v. 2. Ich brauche keinen Arzt, wenn ich gesund bin/bin ich gesund. 3. Wenn sie Hunger hat/Hat sie Hunger, ißt sie. 4. Man braucht warme K., wenn es kalt ist/ist es kalt. 5. Alle Leute mögen einen, wenn man freundlich ist/ist man freundlich.

b. 1. Wenn man ihm mehr Geld böte (bieten würde), verkaufte er sein Haus. 2. Ich würde nicht fragen, wenn ich es wüßte. 3. Wenn er nur den Mut hätte, die Wahrheit zu sagen! 4. Wenn du krank bist, solltest du den Arzt aufsuchen. 5. Was würdest du tun, wenn er plötzlich käme? 6. Wenn sie uns nur helfen würden! 7. Wenn man sparsam ist, wird man reicher. 8. Hätte sie keinen Fernseher, würde sich ihre Arbeit verbessern. 9. Wenn Sie nur wüßten, wie unglücklich er ist! 10. Wir können nicht essen, wenn wir nicht Geld verdienen.

5.3347 a. 1. Je näher d.G. sind, desto lauter klingen sie. 2. So wie d.E. leben, so leben die K. 3. Er kam s.z., als man erwartete. 4. Je schwerer d.A. ist, umso größer ist d.B. 5. Die Ernte ist so gut, wie die Saat ist. 6. Seine F. sind göβer, als man erwartet. 7. Je größer die Hitze ist, umso größer ist der Durst. 8. So wie die Frage ist, so ist auch die A. 9. Je älter die Menschen werden, desto vernünftiger werden sie. 10. Seine K. sind größer, als wir glaubten.

b. 1. Je mehr man das Bild betrachtet, desto mehr Details sieht man. 2. Wir hatten dieses Jahr so viel Schnee, wie sie in Sibirien haben. 3. Die Reise war billiger, als ich erwartet hatte. 4. Je mehr seine Freiheit beschränkt wird desto rebellischer wird er. 5. Je höher die Geschwindigkeit ist, desto schlimmer werden die Unfälle.

c. 1. Wenn (condition); 2. nachdem (time); 3. Wie (question); 4. da (place, adverb); 5. Da (cause); 6. wie (comparision); 7. dennoch (contrast, adv.); 8. Obwohl (contrast); 9. wodurch (relative); 10. Wenn (time).

d. 1. als (time); 2. damit (pronoun); 3. deren (relative) 4. denn (adv); 5. Was (relative); 6. damit (purpose); 7. trotzdem (contrast); 8. was (question) 9. Trotzdem (contrast); 10. denn (cause).

e. 1. We saw the new drama that he wrote last year (relative). 2. They heard that the police took him into custody (daß-clause). 3. He said something I did not understand

(relative). 4. He asked her what she did during her vacations (indirect question). 5. What he said I did not understand (relative). 6. Do you know where the lemons bloom? (place). 7. (Where there is work, there is also dirt) (proverb; relative/place). 8. (The biter will be bitten; proverb; lit. He who digs a grave for another, falls into it himself) (relative). 9. Who that was, she did not know (indirect question). 10. If you forget that, I'll get angry (condition). 11. We were happy when we got his letter (time). 12. We were happier than we can describe (comparison). 13. (As one calls into the woods, it echoes) (proverb; comparison). 14. We had to explain to him how one uses the machine (indirect question). 15. However much he tried, he still could not make it (comparison).

5.4

5.41 a. 3, 4, 9, 6, 1, 7, 8, 2, 5, 10.

b. 1. It will always remain incomprehensible to me why he decided to emigrate to Africa, after he had established such good living here, which his useless son will destroy now. 2. Had he administered the firm, whose products are known world-wide and which his father had founded, better he could now rely on his efficient grandson and introduce him to the firm, after his other sons have chosen different professions, whereby he would gain a successor for the family enterprise who may still save the firm. 3. Why has the paper, which otherwise reports everything important, not mentioned yesterday's incidents at the students' demonstrations who protested against further armament, but limited itself to international news whose impact on our town is really smaller than the occurrences at home?

5.411 1. Mich zu besuchen, wenn d.Z.h, hast du m.v. 2. Sie hat mir n.g., weshalb; 3. Man sollte ihm mehr V. geben, weil es scheint. 4. Wenn das alte Haus, das du v.d.G.g.h, abgerissen würde, wäre e.J. 5. Wann wir d.R. planten, fragte er, damit.

5.412 a. 1. Die Frage danach, wie man leben könne, wenn alles teurer wird, ist häufig gestellt worden. 2. Es ist d.L. der g. ist, unverständlich, warum d.S, die i. sind, nichts lernen. 3. Ihre Aussage, sie sei n.d., als d.D. stattfand, bei dem d.B. ausgeraubt wurde, klang verlogen. 4. Wann, wollte sie wissen, wir uns treffen, um die G., auf die sich d.K. freuen, einzukaufen. 5. H.S. den ich k. habe, als ich b.F.M., die er g. hat, arbeitete, ist I.

b. 1. Es ist heute, am fünften Juni, noch nicht bekannt, ob das Experiment, das Dr. Schmitt heute bestimmt beginnt und das am neunten Juli beendet sein soll, ebenso erfolgreich wird, wie das vorige war, durch das er Weltruf erlangte. 2. Als seine Mutter, die in der neuen Bibliothek arbeitet, nach Hause kam, nachdem sie unterwegs einkaufen gegangen war, war sie ärgerlich, ihr Haus, das sie am Morgen schnell gesäubert hatte, völlig in Unordnung zu finden, die er und seine Freunde, die er eingeladen hatte, verursacht hatten. 3. Die Frage danach, wo und wann der neue Damm,

der von allen Gruppen, die um Umweltschutz besorgt sind, weithin diskutiert wird, gebaut werden soll, kann nur dann, wenn die Wahlen stattgefunden haben, von der neuen Regierung beantwortet werden.

5.413 a. 1. Er hat ebenso schwer, wie wir es taten, darum kämpfen müssen (object, pred). 2. Sie wollen weder besucht werden, noch wollen sie angerufen werden (complement of pred; subject, finite verb). 3. Werden Sie mit dem Zug fahren oder werden Sie mit dem Auto fahren? (inf; finite verb, subject). 4. Das Kind schlug um sich, das Kind schrie, und das Kind tobte wild. (subject, subject). 5. Das hat weder beschrieben werden können, noch hat das besprochen werden können (2. inf.; finite verb, object).

b. 1. Wir sind ihr bei ihren Hausaufgaben behilflich. 2. Wir helfen ihr b.i.H. 3. Wir kommen ihr b.i.H. zu Hilfe 4. Sie macht ihre H.; wir helfen ihr. 5. darum helfen wir ihr. 6. Wir helfen ihr, weil sie ihre H. macht. 7. damit; 8. damit ihre H. gemacht werden. 9. ihre H. zu machen. 10. Wir h. i. ihre H. machen. 11. Wir haben ihr ihre H. machen helfen. 12. Wir helfen ihr bei den Aufgaben, die man zu Hause macht. 13. die z.H. gemacht werden. 14. die z.H. zu machen sind. 15. die sie z.H. zu machen hat.

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0-88377-276-0
7276R